

## ABSTRACT

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### A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FEMALE LEADERSHIP STYLES IN SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES AND PRIVATE BUSINESS FIRMS

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The purpose of this study was to compare the influence of gender stereotypes, socioeconomic background and leadership proficiency of female administrators in social services and private business firms.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII(LBDQ) and a Biographical Questionnaire were used to gather data. The questionnaires were administered onsite to one hundred subordinates and administrators who were employed in both social service agencies and private business firms in Atlanta, Georgia.

A t-test was used to access the difference between groups by comparing two independent variables: occupational fields and gender perception. The dependent variables were twelve sub-scales of LBDQ-Form XII.

The results indicated that subordinates showed

significant differences between the scores on the twelve variables. Gender perception mean indicated that the perceptions of female respondents were higher on the leadership behavior dimensions of Initiating Structure and Role Assumption while the perceptions of male respondents were higher on Persuasiveness and Consideration. Descriptive data showed differences in both gender and occupational fields. The leadership styles of female administrators varied significantly according to the occupational fields and gender of the subordinates.

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF FEMALE LEADERSHIP STYLES IN  
SOCIAL SERVICE AGENCIES AND PRIVATE BUSINESS FIRMS

A DISSERTATION  
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BY  
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Women's issues have become one of the fastest growing areas of interest and research in recent decades.<sup>1</sup> Issues relating to gender equity in the labor market have been one of many concerns to women. In the six-year period from 1973 to 1979, 150 dissertations were written on women in administration.<sup>2</sup> Social Work Administration has a dearth of literature, while business management has provided the lead in the research on women in administration. Studies have been conducted on the underrepresentation of women in the hierarchies of social work business organizations, sex discrimination, female career paths, the limited aspirations of females, and the acculturation problems of women in

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<sup>1</sup>Janet Cox, "Comparisons of Leadership Styles and Personal Characteristics of Middle and Upper Level Women Administrators in Higher Education and Corporate Business," (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1981): 189.

<sup>2</sup>Maureen O'Donnell, "An Analysis of the Leader Behavior Dimensions of Women Catholics Elementary School Principals" (Dissertation Abstract International, 1981).

today's society.<sup>3</sup> However, Daniels indicated that it has been women who have dealt most seriously with these issues and question how to grapple with them. A number of men have begun to delve into this area of research.<sup>4</sup>

According to the United States Department of Labor, in 1989, there were 56 million female workers in this country's labor force contributing to the American economy. These females comprised 45 percent of the total labor force. The percentage of females in the labor force has increased steadily from 31 percent in 1960 to 62 percent in 1989.<sup>5</sup>

In 1981, females represented over 51 percent of the population of the United States but they held only 6 percent of all jobs in middle management and less than 1 percent of the top management positions. Sixty percent of all female workers in America are clerks, saleswomen, waitresses and

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<sup>3</sup>Marilyn Wiles Granger, "A Descriptive Study of Selected Female Graduate Students Compared with a Model Managerial Women" (Dissertation International, 1980): 46-58.

<sup>4</sup>Arlene Kaplan Daniels, A Survey of Research Concerns on Women Issues (Washington, DC: Association Colleges, 1975).

<sup>5</sup>U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration Women's Bureau "Women Managers," (Washington, DC: Government Printing Office, 1991): 435.

hairstressers. Only 16 percent of female employees are professionals or technical workers and over half of these are teachers and nurses in traditional female occupations.<sup>6</sup> Today, 45 percent of all female workers are engineers, entertainers, social workers, teachers, nurses, saleswomen, and secretaries.<sup>7</sup>

According to Shakeshaft, women's relationships to organizational structure are still unknown. How women administer and function in certain organizational structures and modes, and what the relationship is between an organization and the position women hold are two unanswered questions.<sup>8</sup>

Although the female administrator was one of the most researched topics during the 1970s and 1980s, little conclusive research has been done on the leadership styles

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<sup>6</sup>Stelle Feuers, "Women in Management: Shortening the Odds," Community and Junior College Journal 52(2) (October 1981): 6, 10-12.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid.

<sup>8</sup>Charol Shakeshaft, Women True Profession Teaching Guide (Old Westbury, NY: Feminist Press, 1981).

of women as a separate group.<sup>9</sup> According to Cox, the few studies that have been conducted have focused on the female administrator and her workplace by comparing two or more groups of female leaders.

The research on female leaders has revealed differences between the ways men and women approach the task of administration. Although both males and females use a range of administrative behaviors in their work, the pattern is often different. The behavior patterns of male leaders have been thoroughly investigated, while those of the females have not.<sup>10</sup>

While women comprise over 45 percent of the labor force in the United States, less than 20 percent of persons classified as managers and administrators are women.<sup>11</sup> According to Stiller, the percentage of women who hold

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<sup>9</sup>Charol Shakeshaft, Theoretical and Empirical Developments in Gender Research: Reality in a Changing Theoretical Context presented at the Annual Meeting of American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, CA: April 1986).

<sup>10</sup>Sandra B. Dickson, "Leadership Styles and Background Characteristics of Women Administrators in Public Education and Corporate Business," (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1988).

<sup>11</sup>Ibid.

administrative positions has persistently declined over the past fifteen years.<sup>12</sup>

Most of these studies, for example, have concentrated on male and female leadership behavior in business and industry to determine if differences exist in terms of organizational leadership behavior. Since research in this area is limited, it is expected that the results of this research study would:

1. Contribute significantly to the social work profession in the areas of knowledge, practice, and social work education;
2. Further contribute to the empirical data regarding various leadership needs mandated by the Council of Social Work Education; and
3. Contribute to the limited amount of empirical data on attitudes toward female leadership in both social work agencies and corporate agencies administration.

#### Statement of the Problem

Within the past decade, an enormous amount of interest has been generated within social work and business organizations concerning the roles of women in the workforce. This is true in part because women have increasingly sought to establish themselves in top

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<sup>12</sup>Elaine S. Stiller, "A Profile Analysis of Women in Central Office Positions" (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1979).

administrative positions, traditionally held almost exclusively by men. Despite the increases in the number of women employed, women continue to be confined to traditionally female occupations.

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the male and female subordinates' perception of female administrators' leadership behavior in social services agencies and private business firms from the metropolitan area of Atlanta.

#### Limitations of the Study

The subjects for this study were drawn from the metro area Atlanta, Georgia, a specific geographic location. The limitation of generalizing and interpreting the results of this study to other differing geographic locations has been previously discussed. When examining geographic locations comparable to Atlanta, Georgia, it does appear that this sample of female and male subordinates and administrators is characteristic of today's female administrator in social services agencies and private business firms.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The focus of this study is on leadership styles utilized by females in social work administration and private business firms. The literature review was conducted in four interrelated areas: (1) leadership theories, (2) constraints of female administrators, (3) female administrators in social service agencies, (4) female administrators in private business firms.

According to Lassey and Fernandez no single definition of leadership is universally applicable.<sup>1</sup> There are almost as many definitions as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept.

McGrath states that leadership is a complex social phenomenon.<sup>2</sup> It remains both hazy and perplexing despite a large body of research data. However, a variety of leadership theories have emerged in an effort to define what constitutes a leader. Although the term "leadership" did

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<sup>1</sup>William R. Lassey and Richard R. Fernandez (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.) Leadership and Social Change. (California: University Associates, Inc., 1976).

<sup>2</sup>James H. McGrath, Administrator Person. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).



not appear in the English language until the year 1800, and research on the phenomenon of leadership did not start until the 1900s, researchers have been hard at work making up for lost time.<sup>3</sup> The literature presents a variety of theories about what a leader is; however, leadership continues to be a perplexing phenomenon with different theories emphasizing different aspects. Three of the more recognized leadership theories are trait approach, the behavioral approach and the situational approach. In order to provide a better understanding of this complex concept known as leadership, these three theories were examined from a historical perspective.

### Leadership Theories

#### The Trait Theory

Trait theory, one of the first and oldest theories of leadership embodies as its basic concept the idea that leader effectiveness is determined generally by the personal traits of the leader.<sup>4</sup> The trait theory of leadership

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<sup>3</sup>Thomas Gordon, Leader Effectiveness Training, (New York: Wyden Books, 1977).

<sup>4</sup>Randolph H. Bobbitt, R. H. Breinholt and J. P. McNaul, Organizational Behavior, 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978).

states that possession of certain traits permit certain people to attain positions of leadership.

In Stogdill's study, Bernard defined a leader as:

Any person who is more than ordinarily efficient in carrying psycho-social stimuli to others and is thus effective in conditioning collective responses. Qualities of the leader are sympathy, justice and humanity, insight, honesty and good facts, courage and patience.<sup>5</sup>

Character traits alone are of key importance as far as Barnard and others were concerned.<sup>6</sup> According to Stogdill, W. V. Binham defines the leader as "...a person who possesses the greatest number of desirable traits of personality and character."<sup>7</sup>

Brooks found that other theorists believed that only individuals demonstrating certain inherent characteristics should be considered for leadership positions.<sup>8</sup> These

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<sup>5</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill, Leadership Abstracts and Bibliography (Ohio: The Ohio State University, 1977), 17.

<sup>6</sup>Chester Barnard, The Functions of the Executives (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938).

<sup>7</sup>Ibid, p. 17-18.

<sup>8</sup>Helen L. Brooks, "Similarities and Differences Among Women Administrators and selected other Educators," (Dissertation Abstract International, 1981).

theorists began to search for emotional, physical, and intellectual characteristics. Personal qualities may be used to select an effective leader. This however, did not prove to be the case.

A number of research efforts were made to test the trait theory of leadership, and to identify empirically a set of particular traits that characterize effective leaders. It would have been immensely valuable if such a set of personality traits could have been isolated. These traits could then have been measured and leadership effectiveness predicted. Research has not, however, produced such useful results in over 160 leadership studies. Only 5 percent of the traits appeared in four or more studies.<sup>9</sup> Jennings concluded that 50 years of study had failed to produce personality traits, or a set of qualities that could be used to discriminate between leaders and non-leaders.<sup>10</sup> According to Gibb, a review of research literature using the trait approach to leadership revealed

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<sup>9</sup>Paul G. Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 5<sup>th</sup> ed. (New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1988).

<sup>10</sup>Eugene Emerson Jennings, An Anatomy of Leadership. (New York: Harper, 1960).

few consistent or significant findings.<sup>11</sup>

Stogdill examined 124 studies on the relationship of traits to leadership and summarized the evidence as follows:

A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers.<sup>12</sup>

Cox reviewed 106 studies of leadership characteristics and noted that only 5 percent of the traits appeared in the studies. A close review of the literature concluded that numerous examinations of the personalities of leaders failed to produce a consistent pattern of traits.<sup>13</sup>

The traitist approach reduces leadership to a one-dimensional phenomenon. However, no leader functions in a vacuum. Traits do not consistently predict effective leadership behavior. Gibb concluded that, based on his

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<sup>11</sup>Cecil Austin Gibb, Leadership. Baltimore, MD: Penguin Books ed, 1969a.

<sup>12</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill, Leadership Abstracts and Bibliography. (Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University, 1977), p.64.

<sup>13</sup>Janet Cox, "Comparisons of leadership styles and personal characteristics of middle and upper level women administrators in the higher education and corporate business." (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1982).

review of the trait studies, personality traits are not good predictors of leadership effectiveness.<sup>14</sup>

### The Behavioral Theory

The second leadership theory is behavioral approach. Kanter and Fassel observed several organizational all-female groups and compared the effects of their attitudes. They concluded that, "structure shaped attitudes." In other words, the position a person occupies within the organization shapes the attitudes observed by the researchers.<sup>15</sup> In the 1940s, a group of researchers at Ohio State University undertook a study of leadership behavior. These researchers believed that since a set of personality traits which could predict leadership effectiveness had not been identified, perhaps an effective leadership style or behavior could be identified. The focus shifted from the emergence of an individual as a leader to the actual leader behavior--namely, what the leader

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<sup>14</sup>Cecil A. Gibb. Leadership. In G. Lindsey, E. Aronson, (Eds.), The leadership of social psychology. (Reading, MA: Addison Wesley, 1969b).

<sup>15</sup>Rosabeth M. Kanter and Diane Fassel, Men and Women of the Corporation. (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1977), 246.

does, and how she does it.<sup>16</sup>

The foundation for the behavioral approach to leadership was the belief that effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups toward achieving certain goals. The achievement of these goals would result in high productivity and high employee morale. According to Fiedler, leadership styles refer to the consistency of goals or needs over different situations. Leadership behavior meant the particular acts in which a leader engaged during the course of directing and coordinating the work through his or her group members. Fiedler felt leadership behavior was a motivational system. Two motivational patterns were identified by him: relationship motivation (person orientation), and task motivated (task orientation).<sup>17</sup>

Classical studies conducted by Kurt Lewin conveyed the use of personality of behavior for comparing task-centered and person-centered styles of leadership--autocratic versus democratic. In studies conducted by Lewin, Lippitt, and

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<sup>16</sup>Williams Halpin, B. J. Winer and Edwin A. Fleishman, "A factorial study of the leader behavior descriptions." In Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research Monograph No. 88, 1957), 689.

<sup>17</sup>Fred E. Fielder, "Styles of leadership." In E. Hollander & R. Hunt, Eds., Current Perspectives in Social Psychology. (New York: Oxford University Press, 1971).

White, the behavior of four similar groups of 10-year-old boys was observed. These studies have often been replicated in adult groups with similar results.<sup>18</sup> The following three styles of leadership emerged in those studies:

1. Autocratic. The authoritarian leader plans, directs, informs, is task-oriented and structured. Harrell, Burnham, and Lee found that members who emerged as leaders in task-oriented groups tended to score high in authoritarianism.<sup>19</sup>

2. Democratic. The democratic leaders engage in cooperative planning in accordance with the freedom in the situation, his or her own security and that of the group.<sup>20</sup> Bass related that the democratic style allows for maximum opportunity for all individuals to participate in planning and sharing the responsibility for decisions. The democratic leader is referred to as a person-oriented or considerate individual.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>18</sup>Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt, and Ralph K. White, "Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created 'social climates'," Journal of Social Psychology 10(2) (1939): 271-299.

<sup>19</sup>Thomas Willard Harrell, L. E. Burnham, and H. E. Lee, Correlates between seven leadership criteria. (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Graduate School of Business, 1963).

<sup>20</sup>Clarence Gratton Kemp, Perspectives of the group process. (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Company, 1970).

<sup>21</sup>Bernard M. Bass, Leadership psychology and organizational behavior. (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1960).

3. Laissez-faire. The laissez-faire leader deliberately abstains from directing or planning and follows a policy of non-interference. This style of leadership often causes frustration on the part of the employee.<sup>22</sup>

It was Durham's opinion that three conclusions could be extrapolated from Lipham and White's study: "Democratic leadership is to be preferred. Autocratic leadership patterns provoke unfavorable reactions; and Laissez-faire leadership methods are useless."<sup>23</sup> A number of researchers besides Fielder have attempted to identify effective leadership behavior. The University of Michigan studies conducted by Likert and his associates are examples of such research attempts. From extensive surveys in business organizations, hospitals and government organizations, researchers from the Institute for Social Research at the University of Michigan identified differences in leadership styles that appeared to influence managerial effectiveness.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Janet Cox, "Comparisons of leadership styles and personal characteristics of middle and upper level women administrators in the higher education and corporate business." (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1982).

<sup>23</sup>James Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," Social Work 20(5) (October 1974): 122-135.

<sup>24</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 5<sup>th</sup> ed., (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1988).



Two concepts were identified which social work researchers called employee orientation and production orientation. A leader who stressed the relationship aspect of the job was described as employee-centered, while the production-centered leader emphasized production and the technical aspect of the job. These two orientations can be viewed as paralleling the authoritarian-democratic concepts of the leader behavior continuum.<sup>25</sup> Likert believed the more effective supervisors or leaders were employee-centered. The less effective supervisors were job or production-centered.<sup>26</sup>

Likert expanded the patterns of leadership to include four styles. Each of the five styles was called a categorization system: exploitative, authoritative, benevolent authoritative, consultative and participative leadership. The participative manager was seen as the most influenced by these leadership styles.<sup>27</sup>

Comprehensive studies were also conducted by Halpin and others in an attempt to identify various dimensions of leadership behavior. These studies were initiated in 1945 by

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<sup>25</sup>Ibid.

<sup>26</sup>Rensis Likert, New patterns of management. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1961).

<sup>27</sup>Ibid.

the Bureau of Business Research at Ohio State University in order to investigate the determinants of leadership behavior and to investigate the effects of leadership style on work-group performances and satisfaction. The Ohio State staff found two separate and distinct dimensions of leadership--consideration and initiating structure. Halpin defines these as follows:

Consideration refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of the group.

Initiating Structure refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between herself, and members of her group and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication , and ways of getting the job done.<sup>28</sup>

In business, Blake and Mouton used two theoretical concepts of task accomplishment and personal relationships in the development of their Managerial Grid. They have used these concepts extensively in organization and management programs. Blake and Mouton do not assume that people and production concerns are mutually exclusive, but rather complementary.<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>28</sup>Andrew Halpin, B.J. Winer and Edwin A. Fleishman. "A factorial study of the Leader Behavior Descriptions." In Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. (Columbus: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research) Monograph No. 88 (1957): 689.

<sup>29</sup>Robert Blake and Jane S. Mouton, "A comparative analysis of situationalism and 9,9 management by principle," Organizational Dynamics (1982a): 20-43.

In the Managerial Grid, five different types of leadership based on concern for production (task) and for people (relationship) are located in four quadrants similar to those identified by the Ohio State studies. Concern for production is illustrated on the horizontal axis, while concern for people is illustrated on the vertical axis.

The five leadership styles are described as follows:

1. Impoverished. Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.
2. Country Club. Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable friendly organization atmosphere and work tempo.
3. Task. Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.
4. Middle-of-the-Road. Adequate organizational performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out the work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.
5. Team. People committed to working interdependently to accomplish a "common stake" for the purpose of the

organization.<sup>30</sup> This leads to relationship of trust and respect. According to Blake and Mouton, "team management is the preferred style since it combines a high degree of concern for people."<sup>31</sup>

The Four-Factor Theory of Leadership developed by Bowers and Seashore was also the result of a major study using the leadership style approach. This theory proposes that leadership actually involves four dimensions: support, interaction facilitation, group emphasis, and work facilitation. As in the previous studies, concern with relating leadership styles to degrees of satisfaction and performance was a primary focus of this research.<sup>32</sup>

The search for the most suitable behavior leadership style has not been fruitful. Researchers have not discovered an effective approach to most situations. According to Fleishman and Hunt, the contingency theories which have evolved, suggest that leadership effectiveness depend upon the fit between personality, task, power, attitudes, and

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<sup>30</sup>Ibid.

<sup>31</sup>Ibid.

<sup>32</sup>David G. Bowers and Stanley E. Seashore, "Predicting organizational effectiveness with a four-factor theory of leadership," Administrative Science Quarterly 11(3) (1966): 238-263.

perceptions.<sup>33</sup> Lien concluded that "no particular style of leadership is right in all situations, with all people, or on all jobs".<sup>34</sup> In Lien's opinion, the capability of a leader to function at all points between authoritarian and democratic behavior is the true mark of his leadership ability.<sup>35</sup>

### The Situational Theory

The decision regarding how to lead others is extremely difficult; therefore, an analysis the leader, the group, and the situation requires an analysis of all variables. Tannenbaum and Schmidt used the situational theme in their model of leadership. They expressed the situational theme in the following way: a successful manager can primarily be characterized neither as a strong leader nor a permissive one. Instead a leader who maintains a high batting average is accurately assessing the forces that determine the appropriate behavior for him or her at any given time. Then the manager will be able to behave according to need in relation to the

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<sup>33</sup>Edwin A. Fleishman and James G. Hunt, Current developments in the study of leadership (Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press, 1978).

<sup>34</sup>Lawrence L. Lien, "The leadership of human resources - A framework managers can use," Adult Leadership 20(1) (May, 1971): 30.

<sup>35</sup>Ibid.

situation.<sup>36</sup>

Another model of leadership effectiveness referred to as the Contingency Leadership Model was developed by Fiedler. The model postulates that the performance of groups is dependent upon the interaction of leadership style and situational favorableness. In a summary of sixty-three studies based upon four hundred and fifty-four separate groups from the military, educational, and industrial leaders, Fiedler postulated that fitting the person to the leadership job by selection and training has not been successful. It is easier to change almost anything in the job situation than it is to change a person's personality and leadership style.<sup>37</sup>

The Contingency Model is based on the four factors of leadership: (1) style assessment, (2) task structure, (3) group atmosphere, and (4) the leader's position power. In other words, leadership effectiveness is a function of the leader's motivational base and the interaction of situational factors. The model suggests that leadership style is essentially an unidimensional concept, either task-oriented

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<sup>36</sup>Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, "How to choose a leadership pattern," Harvard Business Review (51) (May - June 1973): 162-180.

<sup>37</sup>Fred Edward Fielder, "Engineer the job to fit the manager." Harvard Business Review 43 (September-October, 1965): 115-122.

or employee-oriented.<sup>38</sup>

The Life-Cycle Theory of Leadership, developed by Hersey and Blanchard, is another important model in the development of the situational approach to leadership. As the level of maturity of subordinates increases, appropriate leader behavior requires less structure (task) and less socio-emotional support (relationship). This theory introduces the concept of group maturity and suggests that to be effective leadership behavior must change as followers mature.<sup>39</sup>

Another situational theory of leadership has been proposed by House and has been called the Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. This theory suggests a different relationship between leadership style and task structure. House postulated that if subordinates are performing highly structured tasks, the most effective leadership style is one that is high on supportive (relationship) behavior. The leader's relationship behavior should help to reduce the frustration and dissatisfaction experienced by employees when performing highly structured tasks according to the Path-Goal Theory of

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<sup>38</sup>Fred Edward Fielder, A theory of leadership effectiveness. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967), 54.

<sup>39</sup>Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 5<sup>th</sup> ed., (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1988).

Leadership.<sup>40</sup>

Four Styles of Leadership in the Path-Goal model are: (1) instrumental, (2) supportive, (3) participative, and (4) achievement-oriented behaviors. The four styles can be exhibited by the same leader in various situations and the effectiveness of the leader depends upon the situation.

According to House:

Under this theory the role of the leader in eliciting goal-directed behavior consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment, and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing road blocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction in route.<sup>41</sup>

The final situational leadership approach to be discussed in the Vroom and Yetton Normative Model. This is a leadership decision-making model which indicates the various degrees of participative decision-making which would be appropriate in varied kinds of situations. Vroom and Yetton suggest that a leader should perform a diagnosis of the situation by applying a number of rules to determine which of the five designated decision-making styles is appropriate to

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<sup>40</sup>Robert J. House, "A path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly 16(3) (September 1971): 321-338.

<sup>41</sup>Ibid.



the situation. By utilizing the two criteria of decision effectiveness, quality and acceptance, the leader would minimize the chances of utilizing an inappropriate decision-making style.<sup>42</sup>

From the discussion on the three theoretical approaches to leadership (traits, behavioral, and situational), one can conclude that there is no universally accepted style or theory of leadership. The research on leadership theories continues as attempts are made to be more definite and accurate in selecting, placing, and training leaders.

#### Constraints Affecting Female Administrators

World War II provided the impetus for a large number of women to enter the work force.<sup>43</sup> The labor shortages brought about by the war increased the female labor force by 3.6 million. This influx continued after war also. The United States Department of Labor reported that there were over 53.5

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<sup>42</sup>Victor Vroom and Philip W. Yetton, Leadership and Decision Making (Pittsburgh: Pittsburgh Press, 1973).

<sup>43</sup>Mary Ann Peterson Holtz, "A comparison of the personality characteristics and background factors among women administrators in education, business and government." (Dissertation Abstract International, 1979).

million women in the labor force.<sup>44</sup>

In the field of social work an increasing number of women are seeking new identities and role definitions. The basic message females are trying to convey is that ancient sex roles have outlived whatever usefulness they may have had and may be seriously dysfunctional today.

In a society that defines a man's purpose, identity, status, and even human worth overwhelmingly in terms of his occupation, it is natural for women, attempting to redefine their traditional role as homemaker and helpmate to focus on employment. According to Chafetz, traditionally women have been considered appendages of men and have been defined first by their father's and later by their husband's occupation.<sup>45</sup> Today, given the definitions afforded by society, many women are beginning to seek careers to find their own identity.

Social work as a profession is rooted in the old tradition that encourages ladies of leisure and wealth to care for the poor and the weak through voluntary charity work. Even today some argue that social work is an expression of the "natural feminine instinct for helping others". As social

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<sup>44</sup>U. S. Department of Labor, Employment Standards Administration Handbook on Women Managers, (Washington DC: Government Printing Office, 1991).

<sup>45</sup>Janet Saltzman Chafetz, "Women in Social Work," Social Work, (September 1972): 12-18.

work evolved into a paid profession, the traditional definition of women's work remained largely intact.<sup>46</sup>

As in other occupations, the female social worker received the proverbial short end of the stick with regard to promotions and salary. For the United States as a whole, the median yearly wages of women employed full-time in 1968 was \$4,500, in contrast to \$7,800 for men. Indeed, women earned 40% less than men.

In 1987, the median salary of women employed full-time was \$23,447 contrasted with \$36,799 for men. The picture was only somewhat less bleak in social work in 1968: the median annual salaries for men and women were \$12,000 and \$10,500 respectively. In this case, women earned approximately 15% less than men. Moreover, this \$1,500 salary differential was \$400 greater than in 1961. In 1987, the annual salaries of social workers was \$16,249 for women compared to \$26,807 for men. Given the escalation of managerial level positions in social service organizations, there has been increased, presumably equal, opportunity for promotion to or direct hiring at these managerial levels.<sup>47</sup>

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<sup>46</sup>Ibid.

<sup>47</sup> Alfred M. Stamm, "NASW Membership: Characteristics, Development, and Salaries," Personnel Information 12(3) (May, 1969): 1, 34-35.

Simultaneously, one might assume that females would have reached administrative levels in increasingly larger proportions since women continue to represent such a large percentage of the social service labor force. In fact, surveys have indicated that the proportion of women administrators has decreased over time. Given these somewhat contradictory occurrences of greater opportunity for advancement and actual decreases in the proportion of female administrators, a comparative examination of the components of job satisfaction of current managers was undertaken.<sup>48</sup>

The following reasons are attributed to the lack of women managers: psychological, social, or organizational barriers that are said to counteract women's willingness and capacity to perform as managers. Although, these claims are pervasive, they may be especially applicable to understanding women in management because organizations are viewed as a male world and the cultural model for a manager is a masculine one.<sup>49</sup>

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<sup>48</sup>Julianna Szakacs, "Survey indicates social work women losing ground in leadership," NASW News (April 1977).

<sup>49</sup>Roslyn M. Chernesky, "Women Administrators in Social Work." In E. Norman and A. Mancuso (Eds.) Women's Issues and Social Work Practice (Itasca, IL: F. E. Peacock Publishers, 1980), 241-262.

Internal factors are most frequently given to explain the failure of women to become managers: attitudes, aspirations, or behaviors that inhibit them from moving into management. Not only may they perceive themselves to be less prepared to participate in a traditionally male world but, more importantly, they may lack the necessary confidence and self-concept to meet management role expectations. Ultimately, these perceptions of themselves as potentially inferior influence their motivation to move into or advance in management and influence their ability to perform competently.<sup>50</sup> The "fear of success" theories have further supported the notion that women may face internal conflict between the need to achieve and fear of achievement according to Horner, Hohahan, Khun & Shaver.<sup>51</sup>

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<sup>50</sup>Carlton Munson, Perceptions of female social workers toward administrative positions. Paper presented at Sixth NASW Professional Symposium, San Antonio, Texas, November 1979; Peter Jennings and Michael Daly, "Sex discrimination in social work careers," Social Work Research and Abstracts 15(2) (1979): 17-22.

<sup>51</sup>Matina S. Horner, "Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts in women," Journal of Social Issues 28(2) (1972): 157-175; Lynn Hohahan, Deanna Kuhn and Phillip Shaver, "Intrapsychic versus cultural explanations of fears of success motive," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 29(1) (1974): 60-64.

In addition, Williams and Epstein stated that women have, in pervious research, reported inadequate personal and professional supports, and limited role models.<sup>52</sup>

From the plethora of satisfaction research, it is evident that not only is a variety of definitions utilized for operationalizing satisfaction but a multitude of techniques as well. While job satisfaction has been measured on a global measure, it has also been measured by subdividing components of job satisfaction which not only yield more information but also indicate that overall satisfaction is not simply the additive sum of all components.<sup>53</sup>

In business, the picture for women is basically the same for women in social service. A Business Week survey of women in business reported that industry in America produced almost

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<sup>52</sup>Martha Williams, "Women and success in organizations," In Women in management: Proceedings of the conference women and men--Colleagues in management. Eds. Meg Gerrard and June Oliver. Human Services Monograph Series, Texas: The University of Texas, (1976); Laura Epstein, "Encountering the male establishment: Sex-status limits on women's careers in the professions." American Journal of Sociology 75(6) (1970): 965-982.

<sup>53</sup>Andrew Szilagyi, "An empirical test of casual inference between role perceptions, satisfaction with work, performance and organizational level," Personnel Psychology 30(3) (1977): 375-388; Charles N. Weaver, "Relationships among pay, race, sex, occupational prestige, supervision, work autonomy and job satisfaction in a national sample." Personnel Psychology 30(3) (1977): 437-446.

as few top women executives as it did four or even ten years prior to the study. Except in the most unusual circumstances, women did not move into a top executive position.<sup>54</sup>

Josefowitz found that women represented only six percent of middle-management positions and one percent of upper-management positions.<sup>55</sup>

The levels of compensation for female executives also does not approach those of their male counterparts. In 1980, the reported mean salary for female holders of master's degrees in Business Administration (MBAs) at the entry level was \$9,334 less than males. A study of women officers of the nation's 1,000 largest industrial companies and 50 leading financial and retailing companies showed that a typical female business executive earned less than \$50,000 a year in cash compensation.<sup>56</sup>

According to Josefowitz, the number of females occupying the upper and middle-management positions in social service and corporate business is meager. The literature points to

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<sup>54</sup>Business Week, November 1980 ed., s.v. "The corporate women." 58-68.

<sup>55</sup>Natasha Josefowitz, "Management men and women" Closed vs. open doors. Harvard Business Review 58(5) (1980): 56-62.

<sup>56</sup>Frank Allen, "Women managers get paid far less than males, despite career gains," Wall Street Journal (October 7, 1980): p.35.

several possible reasons: (1) women do not aspire to management positions, (2) they are not qualified, (3) neither men nor women want to work for female superiors, (4) the attitudes of those in charge of hiring and promoting do not allow for the selection of women, and (5) the organization operates on myths that tend to keep women out of executive positions.<sup>57</sup>

Numerous reasons have been identified as to why women do not seek advancement as administrators. Some of the reasons have been fear of failure, uncertainty about their ability to handle conflict, reluctance to adopt policy-making decisions and since many women have limited administrative experience, they are insecure with their own decisions.<sup>58</sup>

Horner, Condry and Dyer, and Deaux present the argument that women do not aspire to administrative positions because

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<sup>57</sup>Natasha Josefowitz, "Management men and women: Closed vs. open doors." Harvard Business Review 58(5) (1980): 56-62.

<sup>58</sup>R. M. Costick, Women in educational administration: Profiles and resources. (San Francisco:Women's Educational Equity Communications Network 1978); Mary Helen Gasser, "Career patterns of women administrators in higher education: Barriers and constraints." (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1976).



of the fear of success.<sup>59</sup> Others point to the socialization process of girls in society which could lower their achievement motivation.<sup>60</sup> The importance of sex differences between males and females forms another branch of literature about why women might not aspire to administrative positions.<sup>61</sup> The lack of role models creates another obstacle to women actively seeking administrative positions.<sup>62</sup> Schmuck's respondents noted that the absence of role models dampened their own aspirations. Respondents who knew another

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<sup>59</sup>Martha Horner, "Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts, Journal of Social Issues 28(2) (1972): 157-175; John Condry and Sharon Dyer, "Fear of success: Attribution of cause to the victims," Journal of Social Issues 32(3) (1976): 63-83; Kay Deaux, "Authority, gender, power and tokenism," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science 14 (1978): 22-25.

<sup>60</sup>Lois Hoffman, "Early childhood experiences and women achievement motives," Journal of Social Issues 28(2) (1972): 129-155; Bernard C. Rosen and Carol S. Aneshensel, "Sex differences in educational-occupational expectation process," Social Forces 57 (September 1978): 164-186; C. F. Fretz and Joanne Hayman, "Progress of women-men are still more equal," Harvard Business Review 51 (1973): 133-142.

<sup>61</sup>Eleanor Emmons Maccoby and Carolyn Nagy Jacklin, The psychology of differences. (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1974); J. Stockard and M. Johnson, "Sources and dynamics of inequality in the education profession." In Patricia A. Schmuck, W. W. Charters, Jr., and R. O. Carlson (Eds.), Educational policy and management sex differentials. (New York: Academic Press, 1981).

<sup>62</sup>Margaret Weber, Jean R. Feldman and Eve C. Poling, "Why women are underrepresented in educational administration," Educational Leadership 38(1981): 320-322.

woman in a higher administrative position mentioned the importance of the woman as an influence on her career and aspirations.<sup>63</sup>

Respondents in Benton's study overwhelmingly cited traditional cultural conditioning of men and women to conform to sex-role stereotyping in the American society has resulted in many women not viewing themselves as potential administrators and men not acknowledging the professional capabilities of women. The top-level women executives in this 1979 study also believed that the lack of administrative and educational preparation was a result of society's sex-role stereotyping since women have not sought out administrative opportunities and men have not traditionally offered administrative opportunities to women.<sup>64</sup>

McGregor wrote that the model of a successful manager in our culture is a masculine one. The good manager is aggressive, competitive, firm, and just. He is not feminine, he is not soft and yielding or dependent or intuitive in a

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<sup>63</sup>Patricia A. Schmuck, Sex differences in public school administration. (Washington, DC: National Council Administration Women in Education, 1975).

<sup>64</sup>Sandra Y. Benton, "Women administrators for the 1980's: A new breed." Journal of National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors 32, (1979): 3-8.

womanly sense.<sup>65</sup> The very expression of emotion is widely viewed as a feminine weakness that would interfere with effective business processes.<sup>66</sup> Studies have shown that one out of three businessmen feel that females in managerial positions have a bad effect on employee moral; women are temperamentally unfit to manage; women cannot work for women; and women do not need the money as much as men do.<sup>67</sup>

Women are not seen as having the characteristics needed to be competent managers. From the beginning, characteristics required for successful management more nearly corresponded to those characteristics of men than of women.<sup>68</sup> Schein and Massengill and DiMarco conducted research which consistently found that these perceptions still prevail. The traits attributed to successful managers were significantly more similar to the trait characteristics of males than to those

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<sup>65</sup>Douglas McGregor, The Professional Manager. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967).

<sup>66</sup>Maxie Moss Wood, "Personality traits of urban female and male administrators and congruence of these traits with the occupational stereotypes of the male managerial model," (Dissertation Abstracts International 1980).

<sup>67</sup>V. L. Stephanz, "Major obstacles to women's progress in educational administration: A comprehensive overview of major influences, developing trends, conclusions to be drawn, and recommendations," (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1979).

<sup>68</sup>Rosabeth M. Kanter and Diane Fassel, Men and women of the corporation (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1977).

characteristics of females.<sup>69</sup> Terborg further found that both men and women perceived men as more commonly possessing these characteristics than they did women.<sup>70</sup>

A study by Garland and Price examined attitudinal changes in regard to the success of women in management positions. They found that even when confronted by a successful woman manager, those with a bias against women in management positions found it easy to assimilate that experience and maintain the bias. Those participating in the study who had a positive bias toward women managers tended to attribute their success to ability and hard work. Good luck and an easy job were associated with successful women by a participants who had a bias against women managers.<sup>71</sup> Meskin and others, have shown that the belief that women are not qualified or competent to fill leadership roles is not substantiated by fact. In more than one study women were

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<sup>69</sup>Virginia E. Schein, "Sex role stereotyping, ability and performance: Prior research and new directions." Personnel Psychology 31(2) (1978): 259-268; Douglas Massengill and Nicholas DiMarco, "Relationship between stereotypes of managers, men and women, "Sex Roles 5(5) (October 1979): 561-570.

<sup>70</sup>James R. Terborg, "Women in management: A research review," Journal of Applied Psychology 62(6) (1977): 647-664.

<sup>71</sup>Howard Garland and Kenneth Price, "Attitudes toward women in management and attributions for their success and failure in management positions." Journal of Applied Psychology 62(1) (1977): 29-33.

found to be equally competent in various elements of leadership skills. Day and Stogdill looked at the responses of three to four subordinates: 37 male and 36 female employees of the Air Force Logistics command. The Leader Description Questionnaire--Form XII (LBDQ) was used as a measure of leadership traits, and an effectiveness check-off was added. No sex-linked differences were found and no differences in effectiveness were reported.<sup>72</sup>

According to Stiller, the ability, professional preparedness, intelligence, personality, and leadership behavior of men and women do not give weight to the qualifications of one sex over the other.<sup>73</sup> Female high school graduates, however, enter college with higher academic achievement records but lower vocational goals than do male high school graduates, indicating a perception which predates entrance into the job market. It appears that little significant evidence exists to support the common belief that men are better suited for administrative leadership than

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<sup>72</sup>David Day and Ralph Stogdill, "Leadership behavior of male and female supervisors: A comparative study," Personnel Psychology 25 (1972): 353-360.

<sup>73</sup>Elaine S. Stiller, "A profile analysis of women in central office positions," (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1979).

women.<sup>74</sup> Many employers believe that neither men nor women want to work for a female superior. However, surveys indicate that men and women who say they would not work for a woman have never done so. Richardson's study found that attitudes toward women administrators were no different than attitudes toward men in the same administrative positions.<sup>75</sup>

Many studies of management have shown the importance of similarity in designating or hiring leaders. Men, who are usually the ones to make such appointments, tend to pick others who are similar to themselves in status, background, beliefs, and sex.

Walter Wilson Bennett conducted a survey aimed at assessing the attitudes of the presidents of 500 largest corporations in the United States. The instrument consisted of 25 questions which asked for information about the particular corporation and the personal attitudes of each subject. Most of the items on the questionnaire were designed to assess the degree to which the respondents reflected attitudes supporting the traditional view of a woman's role. Survey findings revealed that many of the leaders of the

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<sup>74</sup>Ibid.

<sup>75</sup>Judith A. Monk Richardson, "Women superintendents of public schools in the United States: Factors contributing to obtaining the positions," (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1979).

business community held attitudes supporting the stereotype that "a woman's place is in the home and not in business management."<sup>76</sup>

Schwartz's study of attitudes and business practices included three hundred respondents from large corporations. The women were in general management positions. The study indicated that the utilization of women in line management had changed very little. A large majority of both big businesses and small businesses, however, reported "very good" or "good" experience in the utilization of women in management, with few reporting their experience as "excellent" or "poor." Almost half of the big business respondents and 76 percent of the small business respondents indicated that discrimination against women in management does exist in the following areas: on-the-job training, pay, promotion, and initial consideration for acceptance into management.<sup>77</sup>

The literature also supports the point that men do not

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<sup>76</sup>Walter Wilson Bennett, "Institutional barriers to the utilization of women in top management" Dissertation Abstract International, 1964).

<sup>77</sup>Eleanor E. Schwartz, "Some views on the study of social welfare administration." In Research on Social Welfare Administration--Its contributions and Problems. Ed. David Fanshel (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1962), 42.

recommend women for responsible positions. Edwin C. Lewis found that there is a real resistance by men to women in administration. Many men do not want to work with or for a woman and, therefore, do not support the promotion of female employees.<sup>78</sup> Garland and Price in their study indicated the idea that the bias against women in management not only operates against a female at the beginning of her career, in the absence of clear performance data, but also when she is well into her career and may have established a superior performance record.<sup>79</sup>

Ginzberg stated that in many fields of employment there had been a long and persistent bias against the hiring of women, no matter how well qualified.<sup>80</sup> Even when women's organizations made concerted efforts to identify opens and notify qualified women, traditional recruitment strategies favored men. Tactics in announcing positions, screening

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<sup>78</sup>Edwin C. Lewis, Developing women's potential. (Ames, IA: Iowa State University Press, 1968).

<sup>79</sup>Howard Garland and Kenneth Price, "Attitudes toward women in management positions," Journal of Applied Psychology 62(1) (1977): 29-33.

<sup>80</sup>Eli Ginzberg and Alice M. Yohalem, (Eds.), Corporate lib: Women's challenge to management. (Baltimore: John Hopkins University Press, 1973).



applicants, interviewing candidates, and selecting new administrators all served to exclude women.<sup>81</sup>

Another example of the business world's myths regarding females is the manner in which executives view women as obstacles to corporate production. If a woman is young and very attractive, she is viewed as potentially productive, but if a woman is not so attractive, she is not viewed as having enough to offer the corporation.<sup>82</sup>

Myths associated with the female stereotype restrict job opportunities. Consequently, performance evaluations are distorted, and what is considered aggression in a male is luck or intuition in a female. As a result of this gender-typing, women are not expected to perform equally as well as men on the job and are stereotyped into less demanding positions. Their talents are underutilized, and educated women frequently serve in jobs not requiring academic degrees.

In Schwartz study about social service administration, she reported the following recommendations made by the respondents:

1. Management should seek out qualified women.

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<sup>81</sup>D. M. Timpano and L. W. Knight, Sex discrimination in the selection of administrators: What can be done? Washington, DC: NIT, 1976).

<sup>82</sup>Better A. Snead, "Women in management" (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1978).

2. Women who desire a career should make a lifetime commitment.
3. Management should ignore sex as a criteria and adopt promotional policy based on ability.
4. Management should provide special management training for women.
5. Management should educate its own top managers and personnel concerning the effective use of women.
6. Women must develop a professional awareness.
7. Women must seek out companies that do not discriminate.
8. Women must throw away feelings of male dominance.<sup>83</sup>

Even when women are recruited more vigorously as part of affirmative action programs, the pool of women qualified to enter leadership positions will continue to be insufficient until more women think of themselves as leaders and undertake the additional formal and psychological preparation required.<sup>84</sup>

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<sup>83</sup>Eleanor E.Schwartz, "Some views on the study of social welfare administration." In Research on Social Welfare Administration--Its Contributions and Problems. ed. David Fanshel. (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1962), 42.

<sup>84</sup>Ibid.

### Female Administrators in Social Service

Social service professionals were created by Western Industrial Society. They arose in response to the character of human interaction and relationships among people in tribal or feudal societies, which had different social and economic arrangements or structures. The social service profession began to emerge in the late 1800s in the United States.<sup>85</sup>

According to Compton, the forces for reform centered around the increasing prosperity of the United States, relative peace, great forward strides in applying the scientific method, the leadership of women, and increasingly active social workers, especially those associated with settlement houses.<sup>86</sup> The focus on societal reform through social legislation reflected a deep humanitarian understanding of the role of the social structure and social forces in creating and sustaining poverty, oppression, exploitation, and discrimination against the poor and vulnerable.

Social workers dedicated themselves faithfully to the professionalization of their work. With the development of

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<sup>85</sup>Ronald C. Frederico, The social welfare institution: An Introduction, 3rd ed., (Lexington, MA: D.C. Health, 1980).

<sup>86</sup>Beulah Robert Compton, Introduction to social welfare and social Work: structure, function and process (Homewood, IL: Dorsey Press, 1989).

state boards of charities and organization societies, settlement houses, workers became paid employees rather than volunteers. As time passed, the need for in-service training to enhance worker skills became evident. Societies responded by developing summer training workshops and, at the turn of the century, a master's degree programs, with many universities following suit.

Currently, in the 1990s the micro-level of social work has moved into administration when Schools of Social Work began to offer training in administration. According to Kidneigh, one of the first authorities to look upon administration as an area of social work, social work administration can be defined as that process of transforming social policy into social services. This definition also includes the process of utilizing the experience gained in transforming social policy into social services to make recommendations that will modify the social policy. It is thus a two-way process: (1) a process of transforming policy into concrete social services, and (2) the use of experience in recommending modification of policy.<sup>87</sup>

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<sup>87</sup>John C. Kidneigh, "Social Work Administration - An Area Social Work Practice?" Social Work Journal (April 1950): 172.

Spencer presented many scholarly discussions on the administration method in social work. He defines administration in a social service agency as the process of securing and transforming community resources (human and financial) into a program of community service. This process of securing and transforming resources involves the active participation of a board (legislative body), executive, staff, and volunteers or constituency in varying degrees. Administration in social work is concerned in a major way with enterprise determination which includes goal information. It is not limited to the management and utilization of resources according to plans provided by an external body.<sup>88</sup>

Newman defines administration as the guidance, leadership, and control of the efforts of a group of individuals toward some common goal. The work of any administration can be divided into the following basic processes: planning, organizing, assembling, directing, and controlling.<sup>89</sup> Mayo further defines administration as the determination and clarification of function, the formulation

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<sup>88</sup>Sue W. Spencer, The Administration Method in Social Work, "Curriculum Study on Social Work Education." (New York Council on Social Work Education, 1959).

<sup>89</sup>William Herman Newman, Administrative Action 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1963):60.

of policies and procedure, the mobilization and organization of all available and appropriate resources to the end that the purposes of the agency can be fulfilled.<sup>90</sup> This definition was condensed and summarized by Schwartz when she defined administration as the process and the organization of people working toward objectives which entail the production of goods or the provision of services.<sup>91</sup>

Rodney states, in essence, that administration is the process that mobilizes an organization's resources, human and material, to attain predetermined goals.<sup>92</sup> Finally, Hungate calls attention to the fact that administration is the total functional activity involved in attaining program goals.<sup>93</sup>

This section of the literature presents an overview of the factors that allegedly explain why so few women are in management, and proposes ways in which the administration

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<sup>90</sup>Leonard Mayo, "Administration of Social Agencies," Social Work Yearbook 23(5) (1945): 159-178.

<sup>91</sup>Eleanor E. Schwartz, "Some views on the study of Social Welfare Administration." In Research on Social Welfare Administration--Its contributions and problems. Ed. David Fanshel (New York: National Association of Social Workers, 1962), 42.

<sup>92</sup>Lynn Smith Rodney, Administration of Public Recreation (New York: The Ronald Press, 1964), 26.

<sup>93</sup>J. I. Hungate, A Guide for Training Local Public Welfare Administrators. (Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1964).

curriculum can better meet the needs of women preparing for management. According to the literature, it appears that, unless the special situation of women is taken into account, graduate schools will not play a critical role in correcting the underrepresentation of women in administration.

By now, it is almost common knowledge that women in social work, although they constitute the vast majority of practicing social workers, are poorly represented in the ranks of administrators in social welfare agencies. According to Fanshel, two-thirds of professional social workers are women.<sup>94</sup> This pattern appears to have worsened over time. A study of 800 agencies in 1957 reported that 60 percent of administrators in those agencies were women. Almost 20 years later, 1976, women held only 16 percent of those administrative positions, indicating that men had replaced women in administrative positions at the rate 2 percent per year in those two decades--a grim prediction for the future.<sup>95</sup> In 1980, Chernesky summarized the research in this area, reporting that studies confirm that women tend (1) to be located in direct-service positions, (2) to remain in

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<sup>94</sup>David Fanshel, "Status Differentials: Men and Women in Social Work," Social Work 21(6) (November 1976): 440-447.

<sup>95</sup>Julianna Szakacs, "Survey indicates social work women losing ground in leadership," NASW News (April 1977).

positions longer before being promoted to the first administrative level, (3) to be located in lower level administrative positions, and (4) to have limited access to top executive and administrative positions.<sup>96</sup> These issues have received considerable attention and have been the focus of doctoral-level research as well as conference proceedings. Several analysts, Belon & Gould, Fanshel, Gould & Kim, Lipham, Knapman, and Scotch, for example, have examined aggregate data to shed light on status and salary inequities between female and male administrators.<sup>97</sup> Other investigators have analyzed structural and interpersonal barriers to the advancement of women administrators, exploring variations in career patterns, supervision and role strain, resulting from dissonance in the

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<sup>96</sup>Roslyn M. Chernesky, "Preparing Women for management in social welfare issues and curriculum needs," Social Work Education Reporter 16(1) (1980): 10-14.

<sup>97</sup>Cynthia Belon and Ketayun Gould, "Not Even Equals: Sex Related Salary Inequities," Social Work 22(6) (November 1977): 466-471; Cynthia Belon and Ketayun Gould, "Not Even Equals: Sex Related Salary Inequities," Social Work 22(6) (November 1977): 466-471; Ketayun Gould and Bok-lim Kim, "Salary Inequities Between Men and Women in Schools of Social Work: Myth or Reality?" Journal of Education for Social Work 12 (Winter 1976): 50-55; James Lipham, "Leadership and Administration," Social Work, 20(5) (October 1974): 122-135; Shirley Kuehnle Knapman, "Sex Discrimination in Family Agencies," Social Work 22(6) (November 1977): 461-465; Bernard C. Scotch, "Sex Status in Social Work: Grist for Women's Liberation," Social Work 16(3) (1971): 5-11.



administrative role for women.<sup>98</sup> A third group of researchers, Bakke & Edson, Chernesky, Hooyman & Kaplan, Kerson & Alexander, and Vandervelde & Patti, have focused attention on the development of management skills, redefinition of roles, and the design "strategies for success."<sup>99</sup> In addition, the National Association of Social Workers (NASW) Program Advancement Fund grant was awarded to the New Jersey Chapter of NASW for the development of a NASW Chapter Action Guide to increase the proportion of

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<sup>98</sup>Roselyn M. Chernesky, "Women Administrators in Social Work." In Norman and A. Mancuso (Eds.) *Women's Issues and Social Work Practice*. (Itasca, IL: 1980): 241-262; Mary B. Curlee and Frank B. Raymond, "The female administrator: Who is she?" Administration in Social Work, (Fall 1978): 307-318; Mary S. Hanlan, "Women in social work administration: Current role strains," Administration in Social Work, (Fall 1977): 259-265; Carlton E. Munson, "Evaluation of male and female supervisors," Social Work 24 (March 1979): 104-110; Martha Williams, Liz Ho, and Lucy S. Fielder, "Career Patterns: More gist for women's liberation," Social Work 19(4) (July 1974): 463-466.

<sup>99</sup>Louise Bakke and Jean B. Edson, "Women in management: moving up?" Social Work 22(6) (November 1977): 512-514; Roslyn M. Chernesky, "Management development for women in social work," Womanpower 2(1) (May 1978): 10; Nancy R. Hooyman and J. Kaplan, "New roles for professional women: skills for change," Public Administrative Review 36 (July/August 1976): 374-378; Toba S. Kerson and Leslie B. Alexander, "Strategies for success: women in social service administration," Administration in Social Work 3(3) (1979): 312-326; Maryanne Vandervelde and Rino J. Patti (Eds.), "Management preparation for women." Unpublished report of Social Welfare Management Curriculum Project School of Social Work. (Seattle, WA: University of Washington, July 1978).

women in social work administration.<sup>100</sup> This project led to the design of a package of training materials that was subsequently published as a book by NASW.

Kravetz and Chafetz define social work as being identified as a "women's profession," and the functions of social work are commonly viewed as extensions of the traditional female role.<sup>101</sup>

According to Gurin, Gurin & Morrison, Lefcourt, Maccoby and Jackson, and Phares, there are certain situations where a woman's profession promotes a value orientation which is internal, whereas women themselves are presumably external. On the surface then, one could argue that female social workers should either be more external than male social workers or be as internal as their male counterparts by virtue self-selection.<sup>102</sup>

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<sup>100</sup>National Association of Social Workers, Administration (New York: NASW, 1968).

<sup>101</sup>Diane Kravetz and Janet Chafetz, "Sexism in a woman's profession," Social Work 21(6) (1976): 421-427.

<sup>102</sup>Patricia Gurin, Gerald Gurin and Betty Morrison, "Personal and ideological aspects, Social Psychology 41(4) (December 1978): 275-296; Herbert Lefcourt, "Internal versus external control of reinforcement," Psychological Bulletin 65(4) (1966): 206-220; Eleanor M. Maccoby and Carolyn N. Jacklin. The Psychology of Differences. (Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press, 1974); J. Phares, "Locus of control." In Dimensions of Personality, (Eds.) H. London and J. Exner, (New York: Wiley, 1978).

Although the profession has a well-documented understanding of the experiences of women administrators in the aggregate, the literature does not contain information about the specific experiences of subgroups of women who hold administrative positions.

The extent to which administrators should maximize both expressive (people-oriented) and instrumental (task-oriented) components of their jobs has been the focus of several management theories. Universal or one-best-way theories presume that both expressive and instrumental behaviors should always be maximized in administrative interaction.<sup>103</sup> Situational theories delineate either the conditions under which expressive or instrumental behavior should be maximized, if at all, or the conditions under which subordinates should be invited to participate in the decision-making process. The underlying premise is that supervision is most effective if the administrator's leadership behavior is based on the subordinate's level of professional development, yet conveys a high degree of concern for both service delivery and

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<sup>103</sup>Arthur G. Jago, "Leadership: perspectives in theory and research," *Management Science* 28 (1982): 325.

the developmental needs of the subordinate.<sup>104</sup>

According to Kadushin, theory and research on leadership in social work settings has been based on the universal approach.<sup>105</sup> Social work administrators have been found to be high in expressive behavior, but low or medium in instrumental behavior.<sup>106</sup> The principles of the trust, empathy, rapport, and caring are integral components of social work practice. These findings are not surprising. Recent evidence suggests that even relationship behavior and participatory management

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<sup>104</sup>Kenneth H. Blanchard, "Situational leadership revisited," in The National Managers' Handbook, ed. A. Ritvo and A. Sargent, National Institute, (1984); Fred E. Fiedler, A theory of leadership effectiveness. (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1967): 54; Robert J. House, "A path-goal theory of leadership effectiveness," Administrative Science Quarterly 16(3) (September 1971): 321-338.

<sup>105</sup>Alfred A. Kadushin, Supervision in Social Work, 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. (New York: Columbia University Press, 1992).

<sup>106</sup>Donald K. Granvold, "Supervisory style and educational preparation of public welfare supervisor," Administration in Social Work 1(1) (1977): 79-88; Rino Patti and Michael J. Austin, "Socializing the direct service practitioner in the ways of supervisory management," Administration in Social Work 1(3) (1977): 267-280; Neil Cohen and Gary B. Rhodes, "Social Work Supervision: A view toward leadership style and job orientation in education and practice," Administration in Social Work 1(3) (1977): 281-291.

may be problematic in some social work settings.<sup>107</sup>

Suggestions by situationalists that administrative behavior should change as the subordinate gains in skills is not new to the social work profession. Over a decade ago, Wax proposed that supervision be terminated after professional subordinates have been socialized to the agency and community and have developed the necessary service skills and professional judgment.<sup>108</sup> Seventy-two percent of 469 administrators surveyed in 1972 by Kadushin reported that both the administrator and subordinate should adopt a consultant-consultantee relationship as the subordinate gains experience.<sup>109</sup> Epstein concluded that experienced practitioners should be able to practice autonomously in environments that combine institutional control with proper organizational

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<sup>107</sup>Richard A. Weatherly, "Participatory management in public welfare," Administration in Social Work 7(1) (1983): 39-43; Pamela A. Russell, Michael W. Lankford, and Richard M. Grinnell, "Administrative styles of social work supervisors in human service agency," Administration in Social Work 8(1) (1984): 1-16.

<sup>108</sup>John Wax, "Time-limited supervision," ed., C. Munson, Social Work Supervision, (New York: The Free Press, 1979).

<sup>109</sup>Alfred Kadushin, "Supervisor-supervisee: a survey," in Social Work Supervision: Classic Statements Critical Issues, ed., C. Munson. (New York: The Free Press, 1979).

supports and sanctions.<sup>110</sup> Notably, in a parallel development, theorists and researchers in the clinical and counseling psychology field have proposed and examined various models of counselor development and differential supervisory behavior.<sup>111</sup>

Both the managerial grid and situational leadership models conceptualize instrumental and expressive behavior as varying from high to low. Viewing the variance quantitatively rather than qualitatively, however, is inappropriate in social work settings in which supportive behavior is part of the technology and participation is part of the ideology.

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<sup>110</sup>Laura Epstein, "Encountering the male establishment: Sex-status limits on women's careers in the professions." *American Journal of Sociology* 75(6) (1970): 965-982.

<sup>111</sup>Darryl G. Cross and David Brown, "Counselor supervision as a function of trainee experience: analysis of specific behaviors," *Counselor Education and Supervision* 22 (1983): 333-341; Mynra Friedlander and Jilisa Snyder, "Trainees' expectations for the supervisory process: testing a developmental model," *Counselor Education and Supervision* 22 (1983): 342-348; P. Paul Heppner and Helen Roehilke, "Difference among supervisors at different levels of training: Implications for a developmental model of supervision," *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 31 (1984): 76-90; John Litterell, Nancy Lee-Borden and John Lorenzo, "A developmental framework for counseling and supervision," *Counselor Education and Supervision* 19(2) (December 1979): 129-136; Russell D. Miars, Terence J. Tracey, Phillip B. Ray, Janet L. Cornfield, Mary O'Farrell, and Charles J. Gelso, "Variations in supervision process across trainee experience," *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 30 (1983); Gregory N. Reising and M. H. Daniels, "Study of Hogan's model of counselor development and supervision," *Journal of Counseling Psychology* 30 (April 1983): 235-244.

In lieu of suggesting that supervisors should vary their instrumental and expressive behavior quantitatively from high to low, in the managerial grid it is proposed that their behavior should vary qualitatively from proactive to reflective. Whether discussing the subordinate's practice or providing socio-emotional support, the administrator retains a team management ideology and demeanor. However, the administrator chooses either to participate in the process proactively, to reflect the subordinate's own efforts to do so, or to chose some combination of the two.

In the proactive mode, the administrator actively tries to influence the subordinate's attitudes and behavior in the work setting. This is accomplished through the effects of coaching, providing theory, putting the subordinate's unspoken feelings into words, directing the subordinate toward other resources of help and information, and strategic questioning. In the reflective mode, the subordinate assumes the lead in the interaction process; the administrator then becomes a sounding board. The focus of the reflective mode is less on task and process direction in the supervisory context and more assistance in helping subordinate's to understanding of the

foundation of her assumptions and factors.<sup>112</sup>

It is the administrator who chooses to be proactive or reflective based on the subordinate's level of professional development. Professional development is based on the subordinate's level of competency and responsibility. Competency is assessed by the subordinate's practice skill level and decision-making capabilities. Responsibility is determined by the extent to which the subordinate is motivated internally versus externally, follows through appropriately in work performance, and is willing to be at a specific level of professional development. However, some work activities may be more difficult than others. The administrator should assess the subordinate's professional development based on the requirements of the actual work to be performed (See Fig. 1).

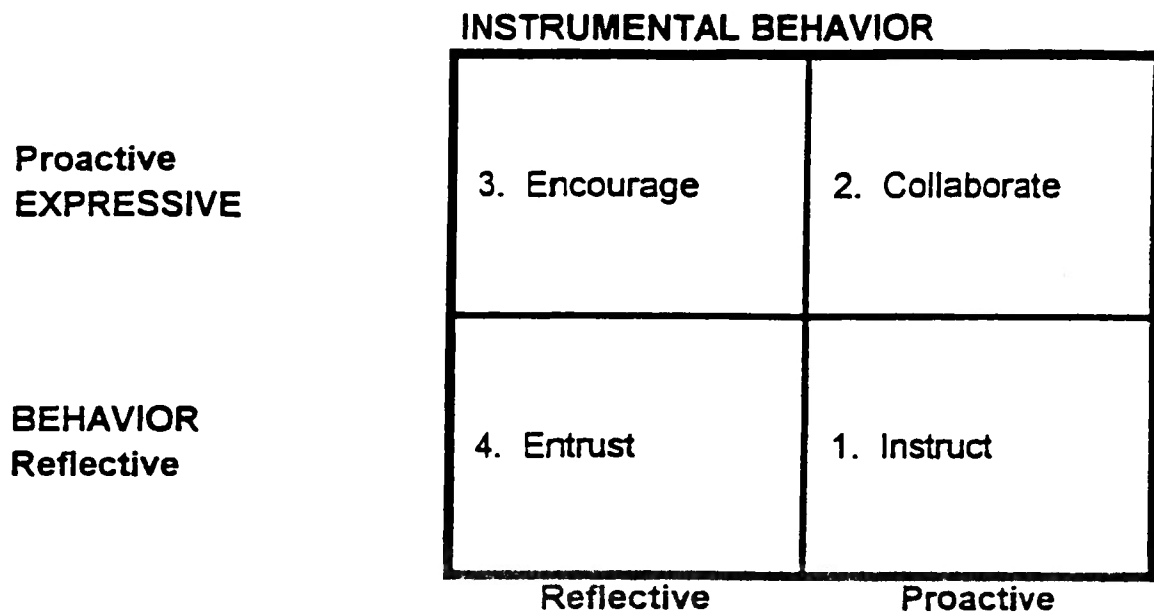
#### Female Administrators in Private Business

The literature on female in private business management has accumulated at an ever increasing rate. The background characteristics of female administrators in corporate business have been of great interest to the research in its efforts to

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<sup>112</sup>Carlton E Munson, Perceptions of female social workers toward administrative positions. Paper presented at Sixth NASW Professional Symposium, San Antonio, Texas, November 1979.





**Figure 1: A Theoretical Model of Leadership  
for Social Workers**

determine the hopes of discovering what causes a female to seek an administrative position.<sup>113</sup>

Henning discovered that women executives in business organizations either had no siblings or were the oldest of all female siblings. All of her subjects had chosen a career over early marriage, with almost half the sample marrying between the ages of 35 and 40. Of the married female business executives in Hennings's study, all of the women executives were well established in their own professions and earning salaries equal to or above their husbands, who were highly supportive of their work. All of the women in Henning's study had an unusually close relationship with their father and were greatly aided in their professional advancement by a father-daughter relationship with their bosses.<sup>114</sup>

Loring and Wells outlined general characteristics of women who had a primary long-range interest in their own careers. These characteristics included a high-level motivation and achievement need, a personal identification with their field or profession, a high degree of

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<sup>113</sup>A. S. Mallory, "Female Administrators," National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors 31 (1983): 28-33.

<sup>114</sup>Margaret Henning, Career development for women executives (Harvard, CT: Harvard University Press, 1971).

individuality, and strong self-esteem. According to Loring and Wells research, the background of career women often contained a working mother who served as a role model, strong influence from teachers and professors, professionally educated parents with high socio-economic status, and an experience of being out of phase with other women, such as developing late physically, maturity, moving often, or not belonging to high school cliques.<sup>115</sup>

Patrick compared the personalities and family backgrounds of professional women to those of homemakers. More of the professional women had highly educated fathers and working mothers than did the homemakers. There was no relationship between birth order and professional status nor any autonomy difference between the two groups. Professional women did not model themselves after their fathers more than the homemakers did, but both mothers and fathers of the professionals had significantly higher expectations of their children than did the parents of the homemakers. Professionals were motivated by the need for competence; homemakers by the

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<sup>115</sup>Rosalind Loring and Theodora Wells, Breakthrough: women into management. (New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1972).

need for approval.<sup>116</sup>

Morrison and Sebald surveyed the personal characteristics which differentiate female executives from female non-executives. They found that the distinguishing characteristics of female executives included the need for achievement, high self-esteem, a desire to assume responsibility, and a high need for power. The executive women possessed higher intellectual capabilities and higher social skills than did non-executive women.<sup>117</sup>

Frieze also reported a catalog of the characteristics of successful women with high career aspirations. The family backgrounds of the women they studied included a supportive father and a mother happy in her career, or unhappy in her role as a traditional homemaker. These women were single or had supportive husbands whom they had married late. They had no children or had children after their careers were established, and they had returned to work soon after the birth of their children. Their personal characteristics included non-traditional values, enjoyment of solitary

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<sup>116</sup>Theodora Patrick, "Personality and family background characteristics of women who enter male-dominated professions," (Dissertation Abstracts International, 1973).

<sup>117</sup>Robert F. Morrison and Maria-Luise Sebald, "Personal characteristics differentiating female executive from female non-executive personnel," Journal of Applied Psychology 59(5) (1974): 656-659.

activities, discussion of goals with female friends, and tomboyishness during childhood. They also had important female role models at some point in their lives.<sup>118</sup>

In a study of businesswomen in management positions conducted by the Psychological Service of Pittsburgh it was discovered that the most noticeable attribute of the successful female executive was her striking similarity in ability and interests to the successful male executive. A typical profile of the female manager revealed an unmarried woman who was in her thirties or, a married woman without children. She had a record of continuous employment since leaving high school or college and was usually the firstborn or an only child. It was found, almost without exception, that she did not have an older brother. Her family was one that stressed independence and initiative, set high standards for her and instilled a strong work ethic.<sup>119</sup>

Barnett and Barch listed high parental aspirations, expectations and encouragement, a mother who was a non-traditional role model and a close relationship with a father who acted as a guide, mentor and facilitator, as common themes

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<sup>118</sup>Irene H. Frieze, Women and Sex Roles: A Social Psychological Perspective. (New York: Norton, 1978).

<sup>119</sup>Psychological Service of Pittsburgh, Industrial Week, August 4, 1975.

in the lives of successful women.<sup>120</sup> Woods interviewed 100 managers in the Los Angeles area and discovered ten characteristics of successful women managers:

Competence, and education, the requirements for both of which were currently greater for women than men; realism, which meant recognizing the system as it is and playing the game within it; aggressiveness, the lack of which meant being difficult to convince others to take one's aspirations seriously; career mindedness, which reflected the fact that men generally still did not take women seriously thereby requiring them to give their careers top priority; femininity, which could be used to advantage in combination with aggressiveness; strategy, which meant having flexible goals and demanding salary parity with men; support of an influential male (sponsorship) who was frequently their fathers early and then husbands later (if not, divorce was likely); and uniqueness which meant retaining important female qualities such as sensitivity.<sup>121</sup>

Phillips described the career development of a representative sample of women managers and executives. She conducted a survey in which 331 women participated, and an additional 2,312 women listed in public business directories were used. Sixty-one percent of the respondents indicated that they had one or more career mentors whose assistance included everything from encouragement, teaching, counseling,

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<sup>120</sup>Rosalind Barnett and Grace K. Barch, The Competent Woman. (New York: Praeger, 1978).

<sup>121</sup>Marion M. Woods, "What does it take for a woman to make it in management?" Personnel Journal 54(1) (1975): 38-46, 66.

help with career moves, role modeling, visibility, and friendship to exposure and excitement. Phillips found that five factors most helpful to these women in achieving their positions were competency, a strong drive and determination, an adequate knowledge base, a good personality, and sponsorship or grooming by another person. The obstacles they encountered were employer discrimination, co-worker resentment, and a personal feeling that they needed more academic degrees or credentials.<sup>122</sup>

In 1976 West intensively interviewed and observed 14 women in California who had risen to positions of power within their respective fields which ranged from politician to dock manager. Of the fourteen women, seven had been firstborn and six had been lastborn. One was the fourth of five children and in West's estimation she was the least successful of fourteen. Twelve of the fourteen respondents had strong mothers; and the stronger the mother the more the daughter tended to identify with her. The effect of this strong mother identification provided these women with self-images that included strength, intelligence, and the feeling of capability. They were movers and doers and apparently had a

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<sup>122</sup>Linda Lee Phillips, "Mentors and Protégées: A study of the career development of women managers and executives in business and industry," (Dissertation Abstracts International 1977).

different view of femininity than the stereotyped American ideal. Ten of the fourteen had been obliged to help their fathers earn money and, therefore, had not been shut out of the economic sphere while growing up. All of the families were stable and physically close; none had been broken by the death of a parent or a divorce. As a result of her study, West identified several characteristics common to the background and childhood setting of the women she interviewed. They were a combination of the following:

1. emulating effective mothers or female relatives who were mother-surrogates;
2. taking the role of assistant to their fathers;
3. being part of close-knit supportive families;
4. feeling different from other children;
5. overcoming negative evaluations that outsiders ascribed their families;
6. learning the manners, dress, and outward activities of the female status, but also learning to play with the boys and compete in athletics; and
7. achieving scholastic and social honors early in life.<sup>123</sup>

Analysis of the data acquired in Benton's study yielded some findings which were inconsistent with the literature written about women administrators in the 1960s and 1970s.

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<sup>123</sup>Naida West, Leadership with a feminine Cast (San Francisco: R. and E. Research Associates, 1976).



For example, the executive woman in 1979 was unlike the single, conservative woman with little social life which Henning and Jardim found to be typical of the population of their 1970 research. None of the women in Henning's study married before age 30 and few maintained any long-term relationships with men outside of work. In contrast, 85 percent of the women respondents in Benton's study had at one time been married and 50 percent of these 1979 executives were married at the time of the study. The average age for marriage of the respondents was 24 years and only one respondent married after age 30. In addition, 70 percent of the women in this study had not only assumed the responsibilities of marriage, but of motherhood as well. One woman was appointed to a top-level administrative position while she was pregnant, and one respondent was the mother of seven children.<sup>124</sup>

Leadership styles of female managers have received limited attention by researchers. Generally, female administrators are compared to male administrators, not to administrators of the same gender. These comparisons are usually for the purpose of proving females are inferior to

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<sup>124</sup>Sandra Benton, "Women administrators for the 1980s: A new breed," Journal Of National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors (1979): 3-8.

males as leaders.<sup>125</sup> Horner pointed out that these qualities associated with top-level executives are also associated with femininity. These qualities included competition, independence, competence, intellectual achievement, and leadership.<sup>126</sup>

A large-scale study of employment patterns of women in corporate America was conducted in 246 industrial and nonindustrial firms by Lyle and Ross. The women managers in this study fell into four management styles as determined by field research based on interviews with the sample of managers and their subordinates.

1. One-third used a productive but somewhat over-controlling, task-oriented approach.
2. Another one-third dealt with subordinates in a permissive manner. They were well liked and received unanimous praise as managers from their exceptionally loyal subordinates.
3. One-sixth were described as detached, aloof, and under-controlling in their staff relations--the staff solved their own work problems.
4. The final one-sixth attempted to use their job as a stepping stone to a better one and,

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<sup>125</sup>Charol Shakeshaft, Women True Profession Teaching Guide. (Old Westbury, NY: Feminist Press, 1981).

<sup>126</sup>Martina S. Horner, "Toward an understanding of achievement-related conflicts in women." Journal of Social Issues 28(2) (1972): 157-175.

therefore, used an exploitative style.<sup>127</sup>

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) sections dealing with consideration and initiation of structure were utilized, as was a measure of job satisfaction. The results showed that the sex of the leader did not make a difference in either the LBDQ indexes, or in the measure of satisfaction. Chapman noted:

...when placed in a leadership position, women may exhibit leadership behaviors which are significantly more relationship oriented than their male counterparts; behaviors therefore which are more congruent with societal expectations. The results of this study indicated that although there may be a difference in leadership behaviors between male and female leaders, there are no difference in terms of style.<sup>128</sup>

In Day and Stogdill's research study of male and female supervisors, it was found that the slow advancement of females into administrative positions was not the result of ineffectiveness.<sup>129</sup> The study suggests, rather, that their slow advancement was a result of being female. Regardless of

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<sup>127</sup>Jerolyn R. Lyle and Jane Ross, Women in Industry (Lexington, MA: D.C. Health & Co., 1973).

<sup>128</sup>Brad J. Chapman, "Comparison of male and female leadership styles," Academy of Management Journal 18(3) (1975).

<sup>129</sup>David Day and Ralph Stogdill. "Leadership behavior of male and female supervisors: A comparative study." Personnel Psychology. 25 (1972): 353-360.

how effective a female business executive is, this effectiveness is often ignored because of her sex. Even when a woman fulfills leadership functions, Coleman, McElroy, and Whitehurst found she is seldom judged to be a leader, either by herself or by the men with whom she is associated.<sup>130</sup>

According to Blake and Mouton, once a subordinate's maturity level is assessed with respect to the required task, the administrator chooses one of the four styles of interacting with the subordinate--telling, selling, participating, and delegating. Telling (high task and low relationship behavior) is appropriate for immature subordinates who need strong direction. Relationship behavior should be minimized to avoid the appearance of permissiveness or of rewarding poor performance. Selling (high task and high relationship behavior) is appropriate for subordinates, who are willing to take responsibility, but unwilling because of the lack of confidence. Finally, delegating (low task and low relationship behavior) is appropriate for workers who are able, but unwilling because of the lack of confidence. Finally, delegating (low task and low relationship behavior) is appropriate for subordinates who are both able and willing,

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<sup>130</sup>Marietta Coleman, David K. McElroy and Carol A. Whitehurst, "Follow the leader," Science News 103(13) (March 1973): 210.

hence requiring little direction, or support from the administrator.<sup>131</sup>

A long-standing controversy between the situationalists and the universalists recently erupted into full-scale debate when Blake and Mouton wrote a series of articles critical of situational theory as espoused by Hersey and Blanchard. Hersey and Blanchard responded; Blake and Mouton rebutted the responses.<sup>132</sup>

Hersey and Blanchard maintain that the managerial grid principles define the preferred attitudes of the female administrator, but that situationalism defines her preferred behavior. According to Hersey and Blanchard, logic dictated that this behavior should vary according to the maturity of the subordinate. Blake and Mouton rejoined that the Management by Grid principles described conceptual assumptions and attitudes as well as behavior. Situationalism is rooted in normless pragmatism, while their managerial grid is based on behavioral science principles that are believed to remain constant with an increase in the subordinate's maturity level. The authors Blake and Mouton indicate that rather than varying

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<sup>131</sup>Robert R. Blake and Jane Srygley Mouton, "How to choose a leadership style," Training and Development Journal (1982b): 39-46.

<sup>132</sup>Robert R. Blake and Jane Srygley Mouton, "Grid principles versus situationalism," Group and Organization Studies, \_ (1982c).

task or relationship behavior according to subordinate's maturity levels, administrators should vary the complexity of the task or goals to be performed.

### Theoretical Framework

Munson suggests that in practice, social work administrators are either active or reactive.<sup>133</sup> Active administrators focus on problems, alternative interventions, client dynamics, and possible outcomes. Reactive administrators focus on the treatment process, interactional issues, and subordinate dynamics. With some qualifications, Munson implies that active supervision is preferable for beginning subordinates and that reactive supervision is preferable for mature subordinates.

As a description of what is actually happening in practice, Munson's framework is quite useful. A normative model is needed, however, to help guide the behavior of administrators confronted with subordinates in different stages of professional development. This theoretical model offers guidance to the social work administrator who wants to avoid the paternalism/maternalism that may result from both the managerial grid and the situational leadership models, yet

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<sup>133</sup>Carlton E. Munson, An Introduction to Clinical Social Work Supervision. (New York: The Hayworth Press, 1983).

maintain high concern for service delivery and the subordinate.

A four-quadrant normative model, similar to the managerial grid and situational leadership paradigms, is proposed for conceptualizing the relationship between the supervisor and her subordinates. The model contains precepts for operationalizing a 9, 9 team management style according to situational criteria. Specifically, it provides administrators with criteria for implementing team management that is based on behavioral science principles and also takes into account the subordinate's ability to function independently. Accordingly, the administrator should assess the subordinate's professional development based on the requirements of the actual work to be performed. Two universal theories, the Ohio State Leadership Model and Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid, have gained widespread acceptance in the business field.<sup>134</sup> The Ohio State Leadership Model prescribes that administrators should exhibit consideration for the subordinates (active behaviors) and should structure and define their subordinates' roles for goal attainment (reactive behaviors).

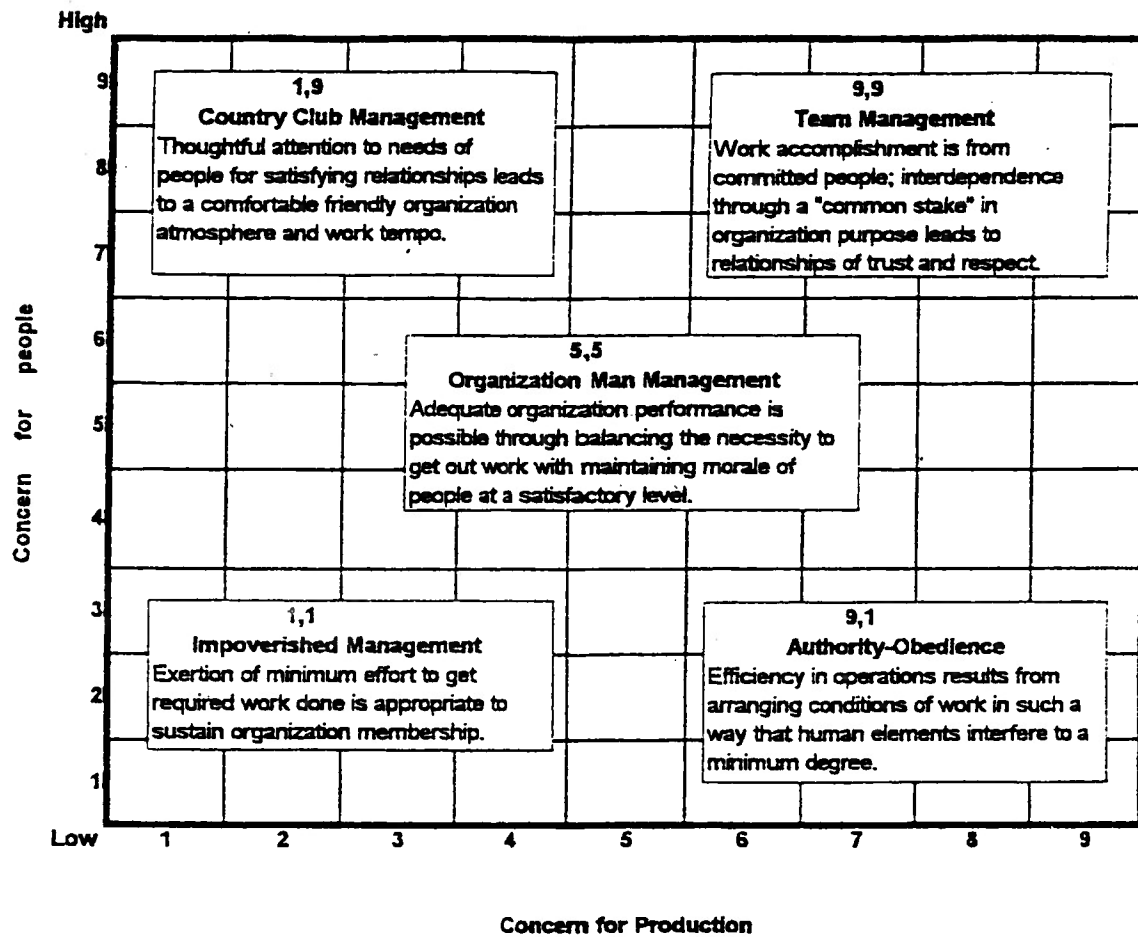
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<sup>134</sup>Robert R. Blake and Jane Srygley Mouton, The New Managerial Grid, (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1978).

Blake and Mouton developed a four-quadrant managerial grid (See Fig. 2), depicting an administrator's relative amount of concern for production (reactive) and concern for people (active). The managerial grid is rooted in the behavioral sciences, and it is referred to as management by behavioral sciences principles. These principles include: participation, open communication, trust and respect, involvement and commitment, resolution of conflicts by direct confrontation, consensual decision-making, synergy, management by goals and objectives, interdependence, critique, and feedback.

Both theories prescribe that a leader should seek to maximize both concern for production (Managerial Grid) or structure (Ohio State Model). They differ in that the Ohio State Model measured leaders' levels of consideration and initiating structure as two separate variables, while Blake and Mouton place concern for production and people on two perpendicular axes, with units ranging from 1 to 9. The latter's result is a four-quadrant model in which five prototypical leadership styles emanate as interactive combinations of concerns for people and production. They are characterized as 1,1 (impoverished); 1,9 (country club); 9,1 (autocratic); 5,5 (middle-of-the-road); and 9,9 (team





Source: Robert R. Blake and Jane Srygley Mouton. The New Managerial Grid (Houston: Gulf Publishing, 1978) p. 11 Copyright 1978 by Gulf Publishing Company.

Figure 2: The Managerial Grid

management). The 9,9 leadership style is, of course, the "one best way," according to Blake and Mouton.<sup>135</sup>

Situationalists, Hersey and Blanchard, have gained distinction with their proposition that effective leadership depends upon contingencies, such as the task requirements and subordinates' characteristics. Hersey and Blanchard, like Blake and Mouton, developed a two-dimensional model with axes connoting task and relationship behavior. Task behavior directs subordinates, sets their goals, and defines their roles. Relationship behavior offers them two-way communication, facilitation, and socio-emotional support. As situational theorists, however, Hersey and Blanchard assert that administrators should choose a leadership style based on the maturity of the subordinate--that is, the subordinate's willingness and ability to perform the task at hand.<sup>136</sup>

#### Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed:

1. Do female administrators in social service agencies have different leadership behavior than female

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<sup>135</sup>Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton, The New Managerial Grid. (Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1978).

<sup>136</sup>Paul G. Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 5<sup>th</sup> ed., (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988).

- administrators in private business firms?
2. Do male administrators in social service agencies and private business firms have different leadership behaviors than female administrators in similar firms?
  3. Do female subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms differ in their perception of female administrators?
  4. Do male subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms differ in their perception of female administrators?

### Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested:

1. There is a statistically significant difference between subordinates in social service agencies and in private business firms regarding their perception of female administrators leadership behavior.
2. There is a statistically significant difference between female subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms regarding their perception of female administrators' leadership behavior.
3. There is a statistically significant difference between male subordinates in social service agencies and private

business firms regarding their perception of female administrators' leadership behavior.

The independent variables used in this study consisted of position titles, social service agencies and private business firms in which female administrators were employed. The dependent variables consisted of 12 subscales of the LBDQ-Form XII.

#### Definition of Terms

To aid the reader in understanding the terminology used in this study, definitions of styles and factors derived from the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (the LBDQ-Form XII) were included, the LBDQ-Form XII purports to identify the two factors which are called the person orientation and systems orientation factors. The dimensions that define the person orientation leader behavior and dimensions that define the systems orientation leader behavior can be found in Appendix F. Other important terms include the following:

1. Leadership: the process of influencing the activities of individuals or groups toward goal setting and organizational achievement.<sup>137</sup>

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<sup>137</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill, "Leadership," Psychological Bulletin, 47, (1959), 1-14.

2. Leadership behaviors: the specific way in which a leader may act by influencing the activities of group efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation.<sup>138</sup>

3. Leadership behaviors: The specific ways in which a leader may act. The twelve dimensions of leadership behavior are identified through the LBDQ- Form XII Questionnaire. Six dimensions describe a person orientation factor; and six dimensions describe the system orientation.

4. Leadership style: the manner in which actions are performed in helping a group move toward goals acceptable to its members.<sup>139</sup>

5. Middle-management: refers to administrators whose supervision takes more management time than the upper-level, but less than lower-level management work. This level of administration includes coordinating with counterparts in other functional areas, controlling the work performance of the group and leading. Mid-level administrators report that the roles of figurehead, leader, monitor, disseminator, and negotiator are important and negotiator are important and take

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<sup>138</sup>Paul G. Hersey and Kenenth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior, 5<sup>th</sup> ed. (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1988).

<sup>139</sup>Ibid.

much of their time.<sup>140</sup>

6. Perception: the process by which individuals select, organize, store and interpret stimuli into meaningful environment.<sup>141</sup>

7. Social work: the attempt to assist those who do not command the means to human subsistence in acquiring them and attaining the highest possible degree of independence.<sup>142</sup>

8. Social work administration: an adaptive process in which a comparison is made between the assumption of the classical management school and the humanistic school. These processes include such items as proposing or setting objectives, planning, organizing policy-setting, staffing, budgeting, decision-making, evaluating and providing continuous leadership.<sup>143</sup>

9. Staff: administrative and support personnel who are not involved in the delivery of instructions in the organization. Positions include social work, corporate

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<sup>140</sup>Margaret Henning and Anne Jardim, The Managerial Women. (New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday 1977).

<sup>141</sup>T. L. Gibson, J. M. Ivancevich, and J. H. Donnelly, Organizational Behaviors Structures and Processes, 7th ed. (Piano, TX: Business Publications, Inc. 1991).

<sup>142</sup>Robert C. Crouch, Social Work Defined. Social Work, 24 (January 1979), 46-49, 63-65.

<sup>143</sup>Harleigh B. Trecker, Social Work Administration. (New York: Association Press 1977), 16-21.

administrators, financial and direct line.

10. Style: the perceived patterns of behaviors favored by leaders while directing and influencing employees.

11. Upper-Management: administrators who spend most of their time planning and performing general management. This level of administration includes setting long-term directions and developing policies to give coherence to the organization as a whole. Specifically, the managerial roles which seem to be most important at the higher level than at the lower levels are those of disseminator, figurehead, negotiator, liaison, and spokesperson.<sup>144</sup>

### Summary

This chapter provided a review of selected literature which focused on four major areas: leadership theories, constraints facing female administrators, female administrators in social work, and female administrators in private business were investigated as they related to this study. The theoretical framework upon which this study was based is research questions, hypotheses and key terms.

There is no universally accepted approach to the practice of leadership as seen by the review of the leadership theories found in the literature. Leadership

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<sup>144</sup>Margaret Henning and Anne Jardim, The Managerial Women. (New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday 1977).

involves interrelationships between the leader, the subordinates, and the situation. Style of leadership tends to fluctuate between task and employee orientation. Variables too numerous and complex to be encompassed fully by today's leadership theorists affect leadership style and orientation.

Most of the research that has addressed leadership styles has used male practitioners as subjects. As a result, the leadership research on women practitioners is scant.<sup>145</sup>

The literature, therefore, showed a dearth of information which enables one to draw conclusions about the differences or similarities between the leadership styles of female administrators in social work and that of those in private business. Furthermore, little information is available about their leadership effectiveness when compared to each other.

Since the present state of knowledge regarding administration has been derived largely from studies of men, it is important to learn more about how female's function in administration and what kinds of rewards and consequences result for them if they pursue administrative careers. There is a very real need to have additional information about the

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<sup>145</sup>Charol Shakeshaft, Theoretical and empirical developments in gender research: Reality in a changing theoretical context. Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Educational Research Association. (San Francisco, CA: April 1986).



conditions under which more females are likely to succeed, the dimensions and range of success, and the characteristics of females who have succeeded.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter contains a discussion of the research design, a description of the research setting, population, procedures for implementation, instrumentation and data analysis.

#### Research Design

This study had three major hypotheses. The first hypothesis was to determine the difference of subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators leadership behavior. A second hypothesis was to compare female subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators' leadership behavior. The final hypothesis was to compare male subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators.

#### Research Setting

The setting for this research was two social work agencies and two private business firms located in Atlanta, Georgia. Atlanta is a large

metropolitan area (Fulton County), with a racially heterogeneous population.

In September, 1990, two United Way organizations voluntarily joined together with contact person #1 to participate in this study questionnaire. Neither the Mental Health Association of Metropolitan Atlanta nor the Atlanta Urban League, Inc., individually had enough employees to volunteer. Therefore, ten administrators and subordinates were selected from the Mental Health Association of Metropolitan Atlanta, where services were offered in public awareness/education, advocacy, legislative lobbying, psychiatric case management housing referrals for the mentally ill and counseling. Fifteen administrators and subordinates were selected from the Atlanta Urban League, Inc. where services were offered in employment counseling, clerical skills/job training, subsidized employment for people 55 years and older, summer youth employment program, rent/mortgage assistance, housing/default mortgage counseling.

The second Social Services group was from the Department of Family and Children Services. Twenty-five administrators and subordinates from the Food Stamps section participated with contact person #2.

The Fulton County Division of Department of Family and Children Services (DFACS) combines both social services and the benefits payment program. Social services are delivered at the local level through the county departments which include self-support services related to training and employment, transportation, daycare, home management services, counseling information and referral, protective services for neglected and abused children, foster care for dependents, retarded and disturbed children and adoption placements. Consulting and technical assistance are available to local groups interested in meeting social service needs-primarily daycare. These groups then extend the range of services that can be provided in local communities. The benefits payments serve needy families with dependent children. The primary objective of the program is to provide money payments and food stamps to needy eligible individuals and families as promptly and efficiently as possible.

The first private business organization was the United States Postal Services at the main location in the Atlanta area (Crown Road). Twenty-five administrators and subordinates from the Finance, Budget and Accounting departments participated with

contact person #3. The United Postal Services (UPS) provides mail processing and delivery services to individuals and businesses within the United States. The postal service is committed to serving customers through the development of efficient mail handling systems and operates its own planning engineering programs. It is also the responsibility of the postal service to protect the mail from loss or theft and to apprehend those who violate postal laws.

A fundamental commitment of the Postal Service is to provide swift and reliable mail delivery activities designed to facilitate postal operations include maintenance and refinement of the postal rate structure, development of mail classification standards, and generation of internal information necessary for effective management of the postal enterprises.

The last private business organization was the Internal Revenue Services located outside the perimeter of Atlanta. Twenty-five administrators and subordinates from the delinquent tax return department participated with contact person #4. The Office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue Service (IRS) was established by July 1, 1862. The IRS is responsible

for administering and enforcing the Internal Revenue laws and related statutes. Its mission is to collect the proper amount of tax revenue at the least cost to the public, and in a manner that warrants the highest degree of public confidence in the service's integrity, efficiency and fairness. To achieve the highest possible degree of voluntary compliance in accordance with the laws and regulations. A service organization designed for maximum decentralization, consistent with the need for uniform interpretation of the tax laws and utilization of resources.

#### Population

The sample for this study consisted of females and males subordinates and administrators both in social services agencies and corporate agencies, who currently or previously were supervised by female administrators. The population selected consisted of 53 participants (40 females and 13 males) from social service agencies, and 47 participants (33 females and 14 males) selected from corporate agencies.

These organizations are labeled social service agencies and private business firms which were divided into females and males. The organizations in this study consist of a diverse population.

At present, according to a review of the literature, an absolute management classification method does not exist. Henning and Jardim stated that classification based on salary or status are inadequate profiles.<sup>1</sup>

Using position titles is also insufficient since titles vary according to the employment organization involved. Position titles in these organizations are usually dissimilar; however, the majority of management studies found in the literature review use position titles alone as a method of classification. In this study, respondents of the two samples were classified as administrator and subordinate in his or her agency.

#### Instruments

All administrator and subordinate participants were given two questionnaires with which to collect data for this study. The Biographical Questionnaire measured personal characteristics and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-Form XII), this instrument were chosen to measure leadership behavior. The questionnaires were administered at two

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret Henning and Anne Jardim, The Managerial Women. (New York: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1977).

social service agencies and two corporate business agencies.

### The Biographical Questionnaire

The Biographical Questionnaire (BQ) for this study was developed by the researcher specifically to secure personal data on each participant in the study.

### Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, often referred to as LBDQ-Form XII, was developed by the Personnel Research Board of Ohio State University. It was used to gather data that describes the leadership behavior of a female administrator in any type of group or organization, provided the followers have had an opportunity to observe the leader in action as an administrator of their subordinates.

The staff of Ohio State Leadership Studies has been described by Hemphill and Coons.<sup>2</sup> A five-point Likert-type scale was used in this questionnaire. The

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<sup>2</sup>John K. Hemphill and Alvin E. Coons, "Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire." In Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons (Eds.) Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. (Columbus OH: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, Monograph No. 88, 1957).



LBDQ-Form XII represents the fourth revision of the questionnaire. It was subsequently found in empirical research that a large number of hypothesized dimensions of leader behavior could be reduced to two strongly defined factors. These were identified by Halpin, Winer and Fleishman as consideration and initiation of structure.<sup>3</sup> These two factorially defined subscales have been widely used in industry, military, and education research. Agreement among respondents in describing the behavior of specific leaders has consistently been found to be significant at the .01 level. Thus, respondents tend to agree when describing the same leader disagree when describing different leaders. Consideration referred to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the administrator and her staff of subordinates. Initiation of Structure referred to the administrator's behavior in delineating the relationship between herself and the subordinates in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organizations, channels of communications and

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<sup>3</sup>Andrew W. Halpin, B. J. Winer and Edwin A. Fleishman, A Factorial study of the Leadership Behavior: Its description and measurement. (Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, Monograph No. 88, 1957).

methods of procedures.<sup>4</sup> The questionnaire that Hemphill and Coons developed, the estimated split-half reliability was .92 for consideration score when corrected for attenuation and .83 for Initiating Structure scores.

Stogdill, in his theoretical work differentiation of positions and roles in organized groups, found that two dimensions were not totally adequate to account for the observable variance in leadership behavior: therefore, he added six additional factors. Later, the dimensions of leader behavior were expanded to twelve. The LBDQ - Form XII expands the original 40 items to 100 items. Each of these items was designated as belonging to one of the twelve subscales or dimensions of leader behavior. A subscale is, therefore, defined by its components items and describes rather complex patterns of behavior. Each subscale is composed of either five or ten items. Stogdill subsequently used the new instrument, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII (LBDQ-Form XII), while researching industrial, government and educational organizations. The twelve dimensions of leadership behavior as described in the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII

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<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

(LBDQ-XII) are as follows:

1. Representation reflects the extent to which a leader speaks and acts as the representative of the group. (5 items)
2. Demand Reconciliation reflects the extent to which a leader reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to the system. (5 items)
3. Tolerance of Uncertainty reflects the extent to which a leader is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset. (10 items)
4. Persuasiveness reflects the extent to which a leader uses persuasion and argument effectively and exhibits strong convictions. (10 items)
5. Initiation of Structure reflects the extent to which a leader defines his/her role and lets followers know what is expected of them. (10 items)
6. Tolerance of freedom reflects the extent to which a leader permits followers to scope for initiation, decision, and action. (10 items)
7. Role Assumption reflects the extent to which a leader actively exercises the leadership role

- without surrendering leadership to others. (10 items)
8. Consideration reflects the extent to which a leader regards the comfort well-being, status and contributions of followers. (10 items)
  9. Production Emphasis reflects the extent to which a leader applies pressure for productive output. (10 items)
  10. Predictive Accuracy reflects the extent to which a leader exhibits foresight and the ability to predict outcomes accurately. (5 items)
  11. Integration reflects the extent to which a leader maintains a closely knit organization and resolves inter-member conflicts. (5 items)
  12. Superior Orientation reflects the extent to which a leader maintains cordial relations with his/her supervisors, has influence with them, and strives for higher status. (5 items)<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>5</sup>John K. Hemphill and Alvin E. Coons. "Development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire." In Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement. (Ed.) Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons. (Columbus, OH: The Ohio State University, Bureau of Business Research, Monograph No. 88, 1957).

A Likert-type scale is still used in the LBDQ - Form XII. The respondent circles one of five possible responses: "always", "often", "occasionally", "seldom", and "never". Score values range from five to one with 20 items being reverse scored. Each score on each of the items of the subscale.<sup>6</sup>

The reliability of the instrument subscales was established and described by Stogdill as follows:

The validity and reliability of the LBDQ Form-XII was supported by Morrison, McCall and DeVries. These researchers performed a comprehensive review of 24 instruments concerned with leadership behavior.

The reliability of the subscales was determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. The modification is consistent in the fact that each item was correlated with the remainder of the subscale score including the item. This procedure yields a conservative estimate of the subscale reliability.<sup>7</sup>

Stogdill's research in 1969 constituted evidence that the subscales of the LBDQ-Form XII measured what they were purposed to measure; therefore, the instrument was valid by O'Donnell.<sup>8</sup> Construct validity of the instrument was established by Stogdill

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<sup>6</sup>Ibid.

<sup>7</sup>Ralph M. Stogdill. "Leadership," Psychological Bulletin 47 (1959): 1-14.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., p.8.

and Day.

Data regarding the reliability of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire has been provided in the research of Stogdill and Coons and also in the works of Stogdill and Day. The internal consistency reliabilities of the LBDQ Form - XII range most often between .7 and .8.<sup>9</sup> The Ohio State University, College of Business granted permission to use this instrument. The scoring manual states that there are no norms for the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire.<sup>10</sup>

The female respondents' perception of their leadership behavior characteristics were compared and evaluated through the LBDQ-Form XII questionnaire. The leadership behavior measures were derived from 100 questions that each selected administrator and subordinate answered on the questionnaire. Respondents selected either "always," "often," "occasionally," "seldom," or "never." These responses determined the degree to which the female administrator was perceived to act as described.

A score from one to five was assigned depending

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<sup>9</sup>David Day and Ralph Stogdill. "Leadership behavior of male and female supervisors: A comparative study." Personnel Psychology 25(1972): 353-360.

<sup>10</sup>Ibid.

upon the response to each question. After the researcher's tabulations of the scores for the specified questions, a score was determined for the questionnaire. The factors are systems orientation dimensions and person orientation dimensions, from the questionnaire, each factor was produced by the tabulated score on each of six dimensions. The system orientation factor dimensions and the person orientation factor dimension can be found in Appendix F. From the scores of the question groupings, a measurement of leader behavior was derived: the overall leader score, an orientation score for each of the twelve dimensions was calculated.

#### Procedures for Implementation

The following procedures were followed in implementing this study:

1. The researcher secured the cooperation of a contact person in four organizations in September, 1990.
2. Verbal permission was secured from the contact persons' in perspective organizations: two social service agencies and two corporate business agencies to conduct on-site research. The researcher

conducted an orientation session with each contact person.

3. The contact person generated a pool of eligible respondents from which to draw a study sample.
4. A pool of eligible respondents were randomly selected by choosing a number out of a box.
5. Each of the four contact persons were given a packet containing 25 cover letters, Biographical Questionnaires (BQ) and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ).
6. On-site Questionnaires were completed by 40 females and 13 males in social service agencies and 33 females and 14 males in private business firms.
7. The data were then organized, analyzed, interpreted and reported.
8. Research findings, conclusions, implications and recommendations were incorporated into the final dissertation.



### Summary

Chapter III presented methods and procedures that were used in this study. The chapter contained the research design, research setting, population, instruments and procedures for implementation.

## CHAPTER IV

### REPORT OF THE RESULTS

The purpose of Chapter IV was to present and analyze the data compiled to answer the posed hypotheses in this study. The study compared female leadership styles in social service agencies and private business firms. More specifically, this chapter sought to compare subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perceptions of female administrators' leadership behavior.

#### Composition Of The Study

Data for this study were obtained from a sample of 100 respondents who were administrators and subordinates. These respondents had currently or previously had a female administrator in a social service agency or a private business firm.

The respondents in this study were composed of males and females; fifty-three (53) were from the social service agency and forty-seven (47) were from the private business firm. The area of employment was metro Atlanta, Georgia.

The respondents were requested to complete the Biographical Questionnaire and the Leadership Behavior

Description Questionnaire-Form XII on-site. Those two instruments were used to gather the data that described the leadership behavior of the female administrator in any type of group or organizations.

A total of 100 questionnaires were returned on-site representing a response rate of 100 percent. Of the questionnaires that were returned, fifth-three (53) percent were from the social service agency and forth-seven (47)percent were from the private business firms.

The results are reported in two sections. The first section provided a profile of the total sample. The biographical questionnaire included in this section was attained from two organization fields by frequencies and percentages. The second section of this chapter discusses the research questions and the hypotheses. The statistical analysis of the twelve leadership subscale variables, perceptions and the findings from the hypotheses.

After analyzing the data and the findings of the study, researchers reviewed the data within the framework reference of at least three hypotheses:

1. There is a statistically significant difference between administrators in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female

administrators' leadership behavior.

2. There is a statistically significant difference between female subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators' leadership behavior.
3. There is a statistically difference between male subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators' leadership behavior.

#### Personal Characteristics Of Respondents

Two tables were used to show the personal characteristics by organizations in social service agencies. Table 1 depicts the personal characteristics by organizations in the social service agencies and private business firm. The respondents by age in both occupational fields ranged from twenty to seventy-two. A third of the respondents, 30 percent were at least 31 years old but under 73, while the largest proportion being in the 31-45 age range on 44 percent. The biographical data revealed that the current marital status of most respondents were single,

TABLE 1  
Descriptive Statistics of Personal Characteristics by Organizations

Characteristics	Social Services		Private Business	
	N	%	N	%
Gender:				
Males	13	24.5	14	29.7
Females	40	75.4	33	70.2
Age Range				
20-29	18	33.9	12	25.5
30-39	24	45.2	20	42.5
40-72	11	20.7	15	31.9
Marital Status				
Single	25	47.1	18	38.3
Married	19	35.8	21	44.6
Separated	02	3.7	01	2.1
Divorced	07	13.2	07	14.8
Race				
African-Amer.	25	64.1	23	48.9
Caucasian	19	30.1	21	44.6
Others	6	5.8	6	6.5

43 percent. Forty percent were married; 3 percent were separated and 14 percent were divorced.

Data in Table 2 presents a descriptive statistics of incomes by organization and the sex of the respondents which indicated that there was a significant difference between salaries of males and females. The salaries ranged from under \$15,000 to \$39,999 with the highest income in the social service agency; mental health and family and children services. The salary distribution for each occupational field had corporate respondents earning up to \$40,000. The private sector versus the public sector, that is the United States Post Office depicted high salaries for both males and females. Ten percent of social service respondents and 8 percent of the respondents of corporate business respondent earned under \$15,000 during this study.

#### Professional Characteristics Of Respondents

The majority of the respondents in social service agencies, 46 percent, had earned baccalaureate degrees, while 10 percent held degrees beyond the baccalaureate level. Only 1 percent of social service administrator had earned a doctorate degree. Data in Table 3 revealed a description of female leadership styles by educational levels of the respondents. Leadership styles as listed in

TABLE 2

## Descriptive Statistics of Organizations and Sex of Respondents Incomes

Salary Levels	Mental Health		Department of Family & Children Services		Urban League		United States Postal Service		Other	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Under \$15,000	33.3	40.0	20.0	5.6	*	37.5	*	*	42.9	19.0
\$15,000-\$19,999	50.0	10.0	40.0	33.3	*	12.5	11.1	*	28.6	19.0
\$20,000-\$29,000	*	40.0	40.0	61.1	*	50.0	*	6.3	*	28.6
\$30,000-\$39,999	16.7	10.0	*	*	*	*	88.9	93.8	28.6	33.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

\* could not be computed due to sample size

TABLE 3

Female Administrators' Leadership Styles  
by Educational Levels of Respondents

Leadership Styles	Some College				College Graduate				Masters'				Doctorate			
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
AUTOCRATIC	28.0	1.9	28.9	1.4	27.2	0.63	29.3	1.2	30.8	*	28.4	3.4	*	*	25.9	*
DEMOCRATIC	12.6	*	13.2	*	*	*	13.2	*	*	*	15.4	*	*	*	*	*
LAISSEZ-FAIRE	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

\* could not be computed due to sample size



this study were autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. It was clearly shown that both males and females ranked female leadership as autocratic. The democratic style of leadership ranked second and laissez-faire did not rank. Those respondents with some college preparation gave a higher rating for autocratic leadership than did those respondents with a higher educational level.

Table 4 presents a description of the respondents by occupational fields and career histories during the time the study was conducted. According to the results, there were more respondents in both occupational fields whose female administrator leadership styles was recorded as autocratic. Position titles were recorded by occupational fields. It was apparent that the respondents from corporate business held higher position levels than did those in social services. Forty-four percent of the respondents in social services and 30 percent of respondents in private business firms were functioning in middle management roles. Nine percent of social service respondents and 17 percent of the respondents in private business firms were in upper level management. The respondents in social service agencies had served in their current administrative positions longer than the female administrators in private business firms. Fifty-

TABLE 4

## Leadership Styles and Position Titles of Respondents by Organizations

Leadership Styles Position Title	Mental Health		Dept. Of Family & Children Services		Urban League		United States Postal Service		Other	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
AUTOCRATIC										
SW Staff	*	*	26.2	0.63	*	*	26.7	*	27.9	1.20
SW Financial	*	*	27.0	0.28	*	*	*	*	30.1	1.93
CA Admin	25.9	*	28.8	0.94	*	*	29.9	0.72	*	*
DEMOCRATIC										
SW Staff	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	12.9	0.42
SW Financial	*	*	13.2	*	*	*	*	*	15.4	*
CA Admin	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
LAISSEZ-FAIRE										
SW Staff	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
SW Financial	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
CA Admin	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*

\* could not be computed due to sample size

one percent of the respondents in social services were hired to serve in their current position as compared to 49 percent of the respondents in private business firms.

The responses to the Biographical Questionnaire (BQ) revealed some of the attitudes and opinions of females regarding their roles as administrator. A majority of the women perceived no conflict concerning their multiple roles of career woman, wife and mother. Female respondents of the two occupational fields expressed concern about the lack of acceptance and respect that female administrators receive from both males and females as their most significant problem and the opportunity to serve as a role model as the greatest advantage. They often considered proven leadership, prior experience, hard work, formal education, personal drive and mentors to be the most influential factors causing them to be in their current leadership position.

#### Statistical Procedure Implemented

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ-Form XII) was used to collect data from both female and male subordinates and administrators who currently or previously had a female administrator.

The data collected through the LBDQ-Form XII were analyzed using the t-test. Each of the questionnaires completed by the respondents was tabulated for 12 composite scores, one for each of the 12 behavior dimensions. Those twelve scores represented the 12 dependent variables in this study.

The t-test was used to compare the two independent variables, occupational fields and gender perceptions on each of the 12 subscales of the LBDQ-Form XII. The 12 dependent variables that measure leadership behavior are: Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, Integration, and Superior Orientation.

Table 5 presents the mean scores of respondents by gender. There was an equal split between the respondents. In both occupational fields, the respondents perceptions of their female administrators was having an autocratic leadership style. It was found that Tolerance of Uncertainty and Initiating Structure were significant when analyzed by the t-test. An examination of gender perception means for social services and private businesses shown in Table 6 revealed that the male respondents mean score was higher on their perceptions of female leadership behavior dimension of Tolerance of Freedom than did Respondents by occupational

TABLE 5  
Perceptions of Female Administrators' Leadership Styles by Gender  
in Social Services and Private Business Firms

Female Leadership Styles	Mental Health	Dept. of Family & Children Services	Urban League	United States Postal Services	Other
	M      F M   SD M   SD	M      F M   SD M   SD	M      F M   SD M   SD	M      F M   SD M   SD	M      F M   SD M   SD
AUTOCRATIC	25.9 * 25.9 *	27.2 0.63 27.8 1.5	*   *   *   *	30.0 0.91 29.4 1.3	27.1 * 29.8 1.7
DEMOCRATIC	*   *   *   *	*   *   13.2   *	*   *   *   *	*   *   *   *	12.6 * 14.3 1.5
LAISSEZ-FAIRE	*   *   *   *	*   *   *   *	*   *   *   *	*   *   *   *	*   *   *   *

M = Male

F = Female

\* could not be computed due to sample size

TABLE 6

## Perceptions of Female Administrators' Behavior Patterns by Gender

Female Leadership Behavior Patterns	Male		Female	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Representation	20.2	3.3	20.5	2.8
Demand Reconciliation	17.5	2.4	18.3	2.3
Tolerance Uncertainty	29.0	*	29.0	*
Persuasiveness	37.2	5.0	35.2	6.8
Initiating Structure	34.0	*	38.3	4.9
Tolerance Freedom	80.8	5.2	79.8	6.1
Role Assumption	32.7	6.1	34.8	4.1
Consideration	38.1	4.6	36.0	6.8
Production Emphasis	32.5	5.3	31.8	5.9
Predictive Accuracy	18.3	2.6	17.8	4.1
Integration	14.1	3.3	14.5	3.4
Superior Orientation	35.7	5.5	35.3	5.5

\* could not be computed due to sample size

fields and gender perceptions were given in Table 7. The primary interest in this study concerns whether or not there were significant differences among the 12 subscales respondents from social service agencies and the private business firms.

According to the t-test by occupational fields and female perceptions on each of the subscales, Representation, Demand Reconciliation, Persuasiveness, Tolerance of Freedom, Role Assumption, Consideration, Production Emphasis, Predictive Accuracy, Integration and Superior Orientation were not significant at the .05 level of significance. This is to infer that the reported effects of each independent variable, independently and jointly, on each dependent variable under analysis were not significant enough to overrule the differences and were not perhaps due to change at the .05 level of confidence.

The remaining two dimension of leadership behavior measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ)-Form XII were significant when analyzed by the t-test for the two independent variables; Tolerance of Uncertainty and Initiating Structure. The main thrust in this study was to compare female and male subordinates'

TABLE 7

Descriptive Statistics - Behavior Patterns of Female Administrators in Social Services and Private Business

Female Leadership Behavior Patterns	Mental Health		Dept. of Family & Children Services		Urban League		United States Postal Services		Other	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Representation	20.9	2.8	19.7	2.5	21.1	2.1	21.6	2.5	19.6	3.6
Demand										
Reconciliation	18.8	2.8	17.6	2.1	19.5	2.2	18.7	1.6	17.0	2.5
Tolerance										
Uncertainty	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	29.0	*
Persuasiveness	31.9	5.0	33.2	6.7	24.0	*	38.0	5.0	38.3	6.1
Initiating									37.6	5.5
Structure	*	*	37.2	4.5	*	*	*	*	*	*
Tolerance										
Freedom	77.0	7.5	78.2	6.5	81.5	3.5	82.0	5.4	81.3	3.9
Role Assumption	30.3	4.0	33.3	4.1	36.4	3.4	32.7	6.6	32.7	6.6
Consideration	35.6	4.7	36.6	6.4	43.5	4.2	36.7	6.0	34.7	6.7
Production										
Emphasis	34.4	5.7	29.3	6.7	32.8	4.6	30.8	3.9	33.7	5.6
Predictive										
Accuracy	17.5	4.6	16.5	4.4	19.6	3.0	19.0	2.2	17.9	3.6
Integration	14.0	4.3	13.0	3.8	16.6	1.9	15.1	2.6	14.4	3.1
Superior										
Orientation	33.1	4.9	31.5	5.3	35.7	2.6	39.8	3.6	35.8	5.1

\* could not be computed due to sample size



perception of their female administrators' leadership behavior in different occupational fields, more specifically, to determine if females and males in social service agencies behave differently with regard to leadership than do females and males in private business firms and if the leaders' behavior varied according to gender perceptions.

The respondents in this study were both males and females holding positions in middle-and upper-management in Social Work and in private businesses. The employment base was the metro area of Atlanta, Georgia. These 100 males and females responded, on site, to two questionnaires, a Biographical Questionnaire and a Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII.

### Results Applied To The Hypothesis

#### Research Hypothesis I

The data and findings of this study were reviewed within the framework reference of at least three hypotheses. The hypothesis established there was no significant difference between subordinates' perceptions of female administrators in social service agencies and private business firms as self-perceived subscores of leadership behavior were measured by the Leader Behavior Description

Questionnaire Form II. When examined at the .05 level of significance, there were no significant differences revealed that would enable this research to reject the tested hypothesis.

#### Research Hypothesis II

The hypothesis established there was no significant difference between female subordinates in social service agencies and female subordinates in private business firms on their perception of female administrators as self-perceived subscores of leadership behavior were measured by Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII. Based on the result examined at the .05 level of significance, there were no significant differences depicted that would enable this research to reject the tested hypothesis.

#### Research Hypothesis III

The male subordinates referenced to this hypothesis established there was no significant difference between the male subordinates in private business firms on their perception of female administrators as self-perceived subscores of leadership behavior were measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII. Based on results examined at the .05 level of significance, there were no significant differences revealed that would enable this research to reject the tested hypothesis.

The t-test of each of the 12 dimensions of leadership behavior variables, occupational fields, and gender perceptions did provide some significant difference in leadership behavior among the four groups. Likewise, the descriptive statistics for the biographical data provided some difference in the gender of administrators and subordinates in this study.

#### Summary

Chapter IV contains a presentation of the results in this study. The chapter consists of the composition of the study, the statistical procedures implemented to analyze the data, a presentation of the biological data and a presentation of the leadership behavior data. The results for this study were applied to the research hypotheses. The summary, conclusions, and implications of these results will be addressed in Chapter V.

## CHAPTER V

### DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is the purpose of Chapter V to summarize this study in the areas of review of the literature, design of the study and analysis of data among groups compared. Conclusions were drawn by the researcher after the completion of the study. Finally, implications of the results and conclusions with regard to contributions to the existing body of literature, implication and recommendations for future study and research are presented.

The purpose of this study was to determine the differences in subordinates of social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators leadership behavior. More specifically, this study was to compare female subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators leadership behavior. The third hypothesis was to compare male subordinates in social service agencies and private business firms on their perception of female administrators leadership behavior. To accomplish this, four steps were taken. First, a literature search was conducted in the areas of leadership behavior to

detect major trends in this area. Second, a sample of 50 subordinates and administrators from social service agencies and 50 subordinates and administrators from private business firms in Atlanta, Georgia were randomly selected. Third, pertinent biographical data and leadership behavior data were gathered from this sample through an on-site distribution: the Biographical Questionnaire and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire--Form XII was completed by both female and male subordinates and administrators. Fourth, the data gathered were compared and analyzed by statistical methods to determine if there were differences in the leadership behavior of female administrators in social service agencies and private business firms.

#### Review Of The Literature

A review of literature was conducted in four interrelated areas: (1) leadership theories (2) constraints of female administrators (3) female administrators in social service agencies (4) female administrators in private business firms. The three leadership theories examined in this study were viewed from a historical perspective. This historical perspective on leadership theories indicated that theories have emerged from simple explanations of observable behavior to sophisticated analysis of complex relationships. For example, early research tried to delineate specific

traits of leaders which would distinguish them from others. The inherent flaw in the Traitist theory is that it views leadership as merely being a one-dimensional process. In truth, leaders do not emerge or function in a vacuum. Focusing on individual traits does not show what the individual actually does in a leadership situation. Traits identify who the leader is, not the behavioral patterns he or she will exhibit in attempting to influence subordinate actions.

When the findings of the Traits research could not be adequately supported, behavioral scientists, during the 1950s, began to focus their attention on the actual leader behavior--namely, what the leader does, and how he or she does it. The foundation for the behavioral approach was the belief that effective leaders utilized a particular style to lead individuals and groups to achieve certain goals. The behavioral approach focused on leader effectiveness and the leadership styles were viewed as emphasizing either the tasks or the relationships of the group.

During the late 1960s, researchers recognized the limitations of the behavioral theories and began to refine and develop new approaches to the study of leadership. The work of traits and behavioral style researchers provided a significant foundation for the study of leadership in

organizations. As a result of these approaches strongly suggested, the most effective way to lead is a dynamic and flexible process that adapts to the particular situation. The situational theories to leadership suggested that the various situations in which a leader functions will influence the leadership behavior.

Many sources of information were examined to produce a comprehensive summary of leadership behavior studies. These sources showed that leadership theories evolved from simple explanations of observable behaviors to complicated analysis of complex relationships.

From the literature review of the three theoretical approaches to leadership, one can conclude that there is no universally accepted style or theory of leadership. The popular approach to leadership behavior uses a combination of aspects from each of the major approaches. Neither of the three approaches to leadership considered females as leaders or made any attempt to determine if a feminine style of leadership existed.

For too long, the absence of women in administration has been considered normal by both women and men. Many factors have combined to keep women from more powerful positions in administration. Many research studies have concentrated on identifying these constraints to women.

Shakeshaft examined 40 dissertations, in which the primary or secondary purpose of research on barriers that women in administration face.<sup>1</sup> These barriers are classified as either internal or external. Internal barriers include: socialization, personality, aspiration level, fear of success, individual beliefs and attitudes, motivation and self-image. External barriers which were researched include: sex-role stereotyping, sex discrimination, professional preparation, family and structural determinants. Each of these barriers have received different amounts of attention and support in research literature. All appear to be plausible, as well as to be frightfully probably; however, in most instances the issue is still unresolved. Nevertheless, the bottom line still remains that female administrators are underrepresented, displaced and underpaid in our social service agencies and corporation business agencies.

A review of the literature revealed few references, other than doctoral dissertations, concerning the emergence of females in leadership positions. The background on females in administration was introduced with an overview of

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<sup>1</sup>Charol Shakeshaft, Theoretical and empirical development in gender research: Reality in a changing theoretical context. Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Educational Research Association. (San Francisco, CA: April 1986).



the present situation of females in the work force. Females in social service administration are underrepresented in major policy-making positions as studies done by Kidneigh, Fanshel and Chernesky were used to substantiate the lack of females in social service administration while studies by Josefowitz and Allen showed the lack of females in corporate business administration.<sup>2</sup> Several doctoral dissertations were reviewed that investigated the professional characteristics of the female administrator and attempted to explain the reasons for the small number of women in administration. Theses studies showed that females scored higher on measures of productive emphasis and were more likely to practice participatory decision-making than men. Other studies have shown that there is no valid reason to prefer male administrators to female administrators.

In summary, the leadership research on female administrators is scant. The present state of knowledge regarding administration has been derived largely from

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<sup>2</sup>John C. Kidneigh, "Social work administration: An area social work practices?" Social Work Journal (April 1950); David Fanshel, "Status differentials: Men and women in social work," Social Work 21(6) (November 1976): 440-447; Roslyn M. Chernesky, "Management development for women in social work," Womanpower 2(1) (May 1978): 10; Natasha Josefowitz, "Management men and women: Closed vs. open doors," Harvard Business Review 58(5) (1980): 22-26; 56-62. Frank Allen, "Women managers get paid far less than males, despite career gains," Wall Street Journal (October 7, 1980): 35.

studies of men which have provided enough information to enable one to draw conclusions about the leadership styles of women administrators. There is a need to have additional knowledge about the characteristics of females who have succeeded, their leadership effectiveness and the leadership styles of female administrators according to occupational fields and gender perception.

#### Design Of The Study

The population for this study consisted of female and male subordinates and administrators from both social service agencies and corporate business agencies in the metro area of Atlanta, Georgia. The subordinates and administrators were identified through volunteer contact persons, who randomly selected a sample from social service agencies 40 females and 13 males. The subordinates and administrators were randomly selected by volunteer contact persons in private business firms, who identified 33 females and 14 males.

These 100 females and males were asked to respond to two on-site questionnaires, a Biographical Questionnaire(BQ) and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII(LBDQ). These two questionnaires were used to gather the data for this study. All 100 on-site questionnaires were completed and returned.

The statistical procedures used in this study were chosen according to the research questions that were answered. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data gathered by the Biographical Questionnaire. A t-test was used to compared the two dependent variables, occupational field and gender perception on each of the 12 independent subscales variables of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII.

#### Report Of The Results

The biographical data were divided into the areas of personal characteristics and professional characteristics. When the biographical data were analyzed, some descriptive differences among the five groups; females and males in social services and private business firms were noted. The leadership behavior data was statistically analyzed to determine and distinguish the behavior of the administrators as measured along 12 leadership behavior dimensions.

Examination of the descriptive data revealed that the five groups were comparable in age, marital status and race. The respondents by age in both organizational fields ranged from twenty to seventy-two. The social service respondents showed a greater tendency to be single and African-American, unlike the corporate business respondents. Educationally,

the social service respondents in this study had attained a higher level of formal education.

The respondents were comparable by occupational fields among most of the professional characteristics. The corporate business respondents were employed by larger organizations and received higher salaries while social service respondents had occupied their positions for longer a period of time and assumed more responsibility for long-term planning and policy development within the organization. According to leadership behaviors, the social service female subordinates and administrators were significantly different from the corporate business female subordinates and administrators on the leadership dimensions of Demand Reconciliation, Tolerance of Uncertainty, Role Assumption and Consideration. The social services male subordinates and administrators, were significantly different from the corporate business male subordinates and administrators on Initiation of Structure. The statistical significance in this study indicate that the leadership behavior of female administrators differ between occupational fields and gender perceptions.

#### Comparisons To Previous Research Results

The results of this research study were compared to the research results of other studies for two primary reasons.

One, to determine the comparability of this sample with other research samples among the demographic data variables. Second, to determine specific trends within the leadership styles of female administrators in this study and other related studies. The personal characteristics of the subordinates and administrators in this study were compared to the characteristics of female administrators in previous studies. Stamm in his study of women in social service found that female social worker received the proverbial short end of the stick with regard to promotions and salary. According to Munson, Jennings and Daly, female administrators in social work not only may perceive themselves to be less prepared to participate in a traditionally male world but, more importantly, they may lack the necessary confidence and self-concept to meet management role expectations.<sup>7</sup> Ultimately, these perceptions of themselves as potentially inferior influence their motivation to move into or advance in management and influence their ability to perform competently.

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<sup>7</sup>Carlton E. Munson, "Evaluation of male and female supervisors," Social Work 24 (March 1979): 104-110; Peter Jennings and Michael Daly, "Sex discrimination in social work careers," Social Work Research and Abstracts 5(2) 1979): 17-22; Peter Jennings and Michael Daly, "Sex discrimination in social work careers," Social Work Research and Abstracts 15(2) (1979): 17-22.

Szakacs in her study found that a proportion of women administrators in social work has decreased overtime.<sup>8</sup> Given somewhat contradictory occurrences of greater opportunity for advancement and actual decreases in the proportion of female administrators, a comparative examination of the components of job satisfaction of current managers was undertaken.

Chernesky found reasons for the lack of women managers are attributed to psychological, social or organizational barriers that are said to counteract women's willingness and capacity to perform as managers.<sup>9</sup>

The leadership styles of the female administrators in this study were compared to the leadership styles of female administrators in previous studies. Cox used the LBDQ to investigate the leadership styles of higher education administrators and corporate business administrators at the upper and middle management level.<sup>10</sup> She found that corporate business administrators scored significantly

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<sup>8</sup>Juliana Szakacs, "Survey indicates social work women losing ground in leadership," NASW News (April 1977).

<sup>9</sup>Rosalyn M. Chernesky, "Management development for women in social work," Womanpower 2(1) (May 1978): 10.

<sup>10</sup>Janet Cox, "Comparisons of leadership styles and personal characteristics of middle and upper level women administrators in higher education and corporate business," (Dissertation Abstracts International 1982).

higher on the leadership dimension of Production Emphasis than did higher education administrators scored significantly higher on the leadership dimensions of Persuasiveness, Initiation of Structure and Predictive Accuracy. Dickson study did not find the same leadership differences as the previous studies. The significance lies in the fact that in Cox study the occupational field significantly influenced the leadership style of the female administrators.<sup>11</sup> The leadership styles of female administrators do vary within occupational fields. The results of her study regarding the differences in leadership styles based on management level are supported by the research of Cox. Managerial level does have an influence on the leadership style of female administrators.

Like other research studies, Dickson study did not find the same leadership differences, the field of social service and corporate business had an influence on the female administrators' leadership style.

### Conclusions

The major thrust of this study has been to determine gender perceptions of their female administrators leadership

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<sup>11</sup>Sandra B. Dickson, "Leadership styles and background characteristics of women administrators in public education and corporate business," (Dissertation Abstracts International 1988).

style according to occupational fields. The 100 subordinates and administrators who participated in the study were comparable in many of their personal characteristics. Some differences are that social service respondents held higher degrees than did corporate business respondents. This can be attributed to the situational requirements of the position and occupational fields. Educational level seems to have been of greater importance in reaching an administrative position in social service than corporate business.

Corporate business respondents worked in larger organizations and found it easier to achieve administrative positions than females in social services. This was expected since they were employed in federal organizations. Although social service respondents had held their current positions longer and supervised a larger number of employees than corporate business respondents. According to data received from female respondents in both occupational fields, mean scores of female administrator leadership styles in social services were significantly higher on Tolerance of Uncertainty, Role Assumption and Consideration. Whereas, in corporate business agencies, the mean scores of female administrator leadership behavior were significantly higher on the leadership dimensions of Superior Orientation



and Initiation of Structure. One could conclude that female administrators in social services are more likely: to expect uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset; to actively exercise the leadership role without surrendering leadership to others and regard the comfort well-being, status and contributions of subordinates. Whereas female administrators in corporate business are more likely: to maintain cordial relations with their subordinates; to let subordinates know what's expected of them; to influence them to strive for higher status; and to clearly define their own role.

Male subordinates of the female administrator had a different perception. According to the data supplied by the respondents, male subordinates in social services scored significantly higher on the female administrator leadership dimensions of Initiation of Structure. Whereas male subordinates in corporate business scored significantly higher on the female administrator leadership dimensions of Superior Orientation, Persuasiveness, Consideration, Production Emphasis and Predictive Accuracy. Male subordinates perceptions of female administrators in social services are more likely to clearly define their role and let the subordinates know what is expected of them. Unlike male subordinates in corporate business, their female

administrator maintains a cordial relationship that influence them to strive for higher status, to use persuasion and argument effectively and exhibit strong convictions; to regard the comfort well-being, status and contribution of subordinates; to apply pressure for productive output and to exhibit foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately. These results suggest that leadership styles of females are diverse in different occupational fields.

The subscales on the LBDQ-Form XII were the same for the females and males in the two occupational fields and their responses were due to their perceptions of reality. This suggests that leadership style may be a perceptual-based phenomenon.

The t-test performed on each of the 12 leadership dimensions did not produce a significant difference between occupational fields, gender perception and leadership styles. This is to conclude that the sample was not large enough to detect any differences or, in fact, that no differences do exist between the interaction of these two variables. It would appear to be the case of the first and not the latter conclusion. The sample size was comparable between occupational fields but unevenly distributed by gender perception. The scarcity of male corporation and the

sampling technique used to identify these respondents created fewer males for this study. Given a larger and more comparable sample size for all five groups, the study may have produced different results.

This study has neither attempted nor intended to place values on the different perception of female administrators leadership styles. The researcher did not attempt to determine which style was most effective nor which gender perception by occupational field had the most effective female administrator. The style of each gender group was concluded to be most appropriate to that particular situation and for that female administrator. The purpose was to determine if differences in the leadership style of female administrators in this study exhibited flexible and dynamic leadership styles which adapted to particular situations.

#### Implications

The implications of this study are presented in three ways. The contributions of the existing body of knowledge, recommendations for future study and research were considered with regard to the results and conclusions of this study. This study provided certain facts about leadership styles that have been stated previously. The present state of knowledge regarding leadership has been

derived largely from studies of men in administrative positions. It is important to learn more about how females function in leadership positions. During the time of this study, knowledge concerning a female leadership style is limited. At present there is not enough data to formulate theories regarding a female leadership style.

The results of this study show that the leadership styles of female administrators differ within different occupational fields and gender perceptions are only preliminary. This has some important implications for those in charge of hiring and promoting female administrators within an organization.

Another important factor pointed out in this study's results is that subordinates and administrators perceive female administrators differently regarding their leadership style or behavior. This difference in perception needs to be considered in the future hiring, placing, promoting and assessing female administrators. The selection of female administrators can no longer be based on a male-preference policy. As a result, many females are being denied the opportunity to pursue the careers of their choice and society is deprived of the benefit of highly qualified leaders. The placement of female administrators can no longer be in dead-end jobs or on the shelf. A more

compatible match between leader and job must be made if our national resource of female leaders are to be fully realized.

The results and conclusions leave important messages. First, directed toward the social workers who are responsible for training female administrators for the future. In teaching male-model leadership styles, their will significant findings that suggest a female-model of leadership styles does exist. As a result, they will not only deny females the opportunity to develop their own leadership styles, but they will deny society of the potential benefits of a feminine perspective to leadership. The training of female administrators can no longer be based on an inappropriate model of leadership that perpetuates more of the same. The differences in women performing as leaders must be discovered, nurtured and promoted by those who train the leaders of tomorrow.

Finally, women who are leaders or who are aspiring to be leaders, must shed the internal barriers that have obstructed women's progress for centuries and they must not continue to endure the external barriers that impede their present progress. Most importantly, they must discover their own leadership styles. The feminine style must be

carefully matched to particular variables within a job provide for optimum leadership.

#### Recommendations For Future Study

The procedures implemented, sample selected and results obtained were felt to be adequate for this study.

Recommendations for future study on subordinates perception of female administrators.

1. Future research should be conducted on the perception of female administrators leadership behavior in all occupational fields. This will add to the available data so that theories regarding a female leadership style may be formulated.
2. Research needs to be conducted on females in social services who aspire to have administrative positions but have not been mentored to achieve this type of position and to determine why they have not achieved their goal.
3. The effects that profit versus non-profit social service agencies have on female leadership style needs to be studied to determine if these characteristics have any effect on female administrators leadership behavior.

4. Additional research is needed in a comparative study of minority females and males in social work administration to determine whether there are similarities and differences in the variables influencing their leadership behavior styles.

#### Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if subordinates and administrators perception of female administrators is based on occupational field and gender. This purpose has been achieved. Differences in gender perception does exist and is important to social service administrators of today.

## APPENDICES



APPENDIX A: Letter Requesting Permission To Administer The  
Leader Behavior Questionnaire - Form XII

3976 Wisteria Lane, S. W.  
Atlanta, Georgia 30331

July 2, 1990

Ms. Arlen Robinson  
Business Research  
The Ohio State University  
1775 College Road  
Columbus, OH. 43210

Dear Ms. Robinson:

I am a doctoral candidate at Clark Atlanta University in the School of Social Work. I am writing to request permission to administer the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire - Form XII to complete my study.

Please send a complete sample package to include the questionnaire, instructions, and the scoring procedures manual.

Sincerely,

Lillie L. Green

APPENDIX B: Permission to Administer the Leader Behavior  
Description Questionnaire-Form XII



Business Research

Max M. Fisher  
College of Business  
1775 College Road  
Columbus, OH 43210-1399  
Phone 614-292-3031  
FAX 614-292-1651

August 1, 1990

Lillie L. Green  
3976 Wisteria Lane, SW  
Atlanta, Georgia 30331

Dear Mrs. Green:

We grant you permission to use the Leader Behavior Description  
Questionnaire-XII for your dissertation research at Clark Atlanta University.  
Please follow the guidelines on the attached Statement of Policy regarding use.

Sincerely yours,

Arleen Robinson

## APPENDIX C: Letter of Instructions to the Respondents

Dear Sir/Madam:

As a doctoral student in the Clark Atlanta University, School of Social Work in Planning and Administration, I am interested in leadership styles and background characteristics of women administrators in social work and corporate business. You, as an administrator, and your colleagues have valuable information regarding this topic.

It will be most helpful if you would take a few minutes to complete the two questionnaires, the Biographical Questionnaire and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Instructions are included regarding the questionnaires. Neither company name nor individual's name will appear in any report, nor will individual data be made available to anyone. The results of this investigation will be made available to anyone. The results of this investigation will be reported on a group basis; therefore, it is important to the validity of the study that your responses be completed on site and returned on the same day.

If you have any additional questions or concerns about the questionnaire itself or its use, please feel free to ask the researcher. Please accept my thanks in advance for your participation in this research.

Sincerely,

Lillie L. Green

## APPENDIX D: The Biographical Questionnaire

Please complete ALL of the following questions:

1. What is the name of the firm or organization that you are presently working for?  
\_\_\_\_\_
2. Sex: (a) \_\_\_\_\_ Male (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Female
3. What is your age? \_\_\_\_\_
4. What is your current marital status?  
(a) \_\_\_\_\_ Single (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Married (c) \_\_\_\_\_ Divorced  
(d) \_\_\_\_\_ Widowed (e) \_\_\_\_\_ Separated
5. Race: (a) \_\_\_\_\_ African-American (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Caucasian  
(c) \_\_\_\_\_ Other
6. What is the highest educational level you completed?  
(a) \_\_\_\_\_ High School (d) \_\_\_\_\_ Master's Degree  
(b) \_\_\_\_\_ Some College (e) \_\_\_\_\_ Doctoral Degree  
(c) \_\_\_\_\_ College Graduate
7. Size of the Organization:  
(a) \_\_\_\_\_ under 250 (b) \_\_\_\_\_ 250 to 499  
(c) \_\_\_\_\_ 500 to 999 (d) \_\_\_\_\_ 1,000 to 2,499  
(e) \_\_\_\_\_ 2,500 to 4,999 (f) \_\_\_\_\_ 5,000 or more
8. Position Title: \_\_\_\_\_  
Circle one: (a) \_\_\_\_\_ Middle-Management  
(b) \_\_\_\_\_ Upper-Management
9. How long have you had this position? \_\_\_\_\_
10. How long has the female administrator had this position? \_\_\_\_\_
11. Were you promoted or hired into your present position?  
(a) \_\_\_\_\_ Promoted (b) \_\_\_\_\_ Hired If promoted, did you  
apply for the job? \_\_\_\_\_ YES \_\_\_\_\_ NO

## APPENDIX D: The Biographical Questionnaire Continued

12. Income Level: (a) \_\_\_\_\_ under \$15,000  
(b) \_\_\_\_\_ \$15,000 to \$19,999 (c) \_\_\_\_\_ \$20,000 to \$29,999  
(d) \_\_\_\_\_ \$30,000 to \$39,999 (e) \_\_\_\_\_ \$40,000 to \$49,999  
(f) \_\_\_\_\_ \$50,000 to \$59,999 (g) \_\_\_\_\_ \$60,000 and over

APPENDIX E: LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE-  
Form XII

Originated by staff members of  
The Ohio State Leadership Studies  
and revised by the  
Bureau of Business Research

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. Each item should be considered as a separate description. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

NOTE: The term, "group," as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members," refers to all the people in the unit or organization who are supervised by the person being described.

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The Ohio State University  
Columbus, Ohio

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APPENDIX E: Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire-  
Form XII Continued

DIRECTIONS:

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether she (A) always, (B) often, (C) occasionally, (D) seldom or (E) never acts as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

- e. MARK your answers as shown in the examples below

Example: Often acts as described..... A B C D E

Example: Never acts as described..... A B C D E

Example: Occasionally acts as described... A B C D E

- 
1. Acts as the spokesperson of the group... A B C D E
  2. Waits patiently for the results of a decision..... A B C D E
  3. Makes pep talks to stimulate the group.. A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

4. Lets group members know what is expected of them..... A B C D E
5. Allows the members complete freedom in their work..... A B C D E
6. Is hesitant about taking initiative in the group..... A B C D E
7. Is friendly and approachable..... A B C D E
8. Encourages overtime work..... A B C D E
9. Makes accurate decisions..... A B C D E
10. Gets along well with the people above her..... A B C D E
11. Publicizes the activities of the group... A B C D E
12. Becomes anxious when she cannot find out what is coming next..... A B C D E
13. Her arguments are convincing..... A B C D E
14. Encourages the use of uniform procedures..... A B C D E
15. Permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems..... A B C D E
16. Fails to take necessary action..... A B C D E
17. Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group..... A B C D E



A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

18. Stresses being ahead of competing groups..... A B C D E
19. Keeps the group working together as a team..... A B C D E
20. Keeps the group in good standing with higher authority..... A B C D E
21. Speaks as the representative of the group..... A B C D E
22. Accepts defeat in stride..... A B C D E
23. Argues persuasively for her point of view..... A B C D E
24. Tries out her ideals in the group..... A B C D E
25. Encourages initiative in the group members..... A B C D E
26. Lets other persons take away her leadership in the group..... A B C D E
27. Puts suggestions made by the group into operation..... A B C D E
28. Needles members for greater effort..... A B C D E
29. Seems able to predict what is coming next..... A B C D E
30. Is working hard for a promotion..... A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

31. Speaks for the group when visitors are present..... A B C D E
32. Accepts delays without becoming upset.... A B C D E
33. Is a very persuasive talker..... A B C D E
34. Makes her attitudes clear to the group..... A B C D E
35. Lets the members do their work the way they think best..... A B C D E
36. Lets some members take advantage of her.. A B C D E
37. Treats all group members as her equals... A B C D E
38. Keeps the work moving at a rapid pace.... A B C D E
39. Settles conflicts when they occur in the group..... A B C D E
40. Her superiors act favorably on most of her suggestions..... A B C D E
41. Represents the group at outside meetings..... A B C D E
42. Becomes anxious when waiting for new development..... A B C D E
43. Is very skillful in an argument..... A B C D E
44. Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done..... A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

45. Assigns a task, then lets the members handle it..... A B C D E
46. Is the leader of the group in name only..... A B C D E
47. Gives advance notice of changes..... A B C D E
48. Pushes for increased production..... A B C D E
49. Things usually turn out as she predicts..... A B C D E
50. Enjoys the privileges of her position.... A B C D E
51. Handles complex problems efficiently..... A B C D E
52. Is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty..... A B C D E
53. Is not a very convincing talker..... A B C D E
54. Assigns group members to particular tasks..... A B C D E
55. Turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it..... A B C D E
56. Backs down when she ought to stand firm.. A B C D E
57. Keeps to herself..... A B C D E
58. Asks the members to work harder..... A B C D E
59. Is accurate in predicting the trend of events..... A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

60. Gets her superiors to act for the  
welfare of the group members..... A B C D E
61. Gets swamped by details..... A B C D E
62. Can wait just so long, then blows up..... A B C D E
63. Speaks from a strong inner conviction.... A B C D E
64. Makes sure that her part in the group is  
understood by the group members..... A B C D E
65. Is reluctant to allow the members any  
freedom of action..... A B C D E
66. Lets some members have authority that she  
should have..... A B C D E
67. Looks out for the personal welfare of  
group members..... A B C D E
68. Permits the members to take it easy in  
their work..... A B C D E
69. Sees to it that the work of the group is  
coordinated..... A B C D E
70. Her word carries weight with superiors... A B C D E
71. Gets things all tangled up..... A B C D E
72. Remains calm when uncertain about coming  
events..... A B C D E
73. Is an inspiring talker..... A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

74. Schedules the work to be done..... A B C D E
75. Allows the group a high degree of  
initiative..... A B C D E
76. Takes full charge when emergencies  
arise..... A B C D E
77. Is willing to make changes..... A B C D E
78. Drives hard when there is a job to be  
done..... A B C D E
79. Helps group members settle their  
differences..... A B C D E
80. Gets what she asks for from her  
superiors..... A B C D E
81. Can reduce a madhouse to system and  
order..... A B C D E
82. Is able to delay action until the proper  
time occurs..... A B C D E
83. Persuades others that her ideals are to  
their advantage..... A B C D E
84. Maintains definite standards of  
performance..... A B C D E
85. Trusts members to exercise good  
judgment..... A B C D E
86. Overcomes attempts made to challenge her  
leadership..... A B C D E

A = Always

B = Often

C = Occasionally

D = Seldom

E = Never

87. Refuses to explain her actions..... A B C D E
88. Urges the group to beat its previous  
record..... A B C D E
89. Anticipates problems and plans for them.. A B C D E
90. Is working her way to the top..... A B C D E
91. Gets confused when to many demands are  
made of her..... A B C D E
92. Worries about the outcome of any new  
procedure..... A B C D E
93. Can inspire enthusiasm for a project..... A B C D E
94. Asks that group members follow standard  
rules and regulations..... A B C D E
95. Permits the group to set its own pace.... A B C D E
96. Is easily recognized as the leader of the  
group..... A B C D E
97. Acts without consulting the group..... A B C D E
98. Keeps the group working up to capacity... A B C D E
99. Maintains a closely knit group..... A B C D E
100. Maintains cordial relations with  
superiors..... A B C D E

APPENDIX F: Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire-  
Form XII Factors and Sub-Scale Definitions

System Oriented Dimensions

1. Production Emphasis - Applies pressure for production output.
2. Initiation of Structure - Clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected.
3. Representation - Speaks and acts as the representative of the group.
4. Role Assumption - Actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.
5. Persuasion - Uses persuasion and argument effectively; exhibits strong conviction.
6. Superior Orientation - Maintains cordial relations with superiors, has influence with them, and strives for higher status.

Person Oriented Dimensions

1. Tolerance of Freedom - Allows staff members to scope for initiative, decision, and action.
2. Tolerance of Uncertainty - Is able to tolerate uncertainty and postponement without anxiety or upset.
3. Consideration - Regards the comfort well-being, status and contributions of followers.
4. Demand Reconciliation - Reconciles conflicting demands and reduces disorder to system.
5. Predictive Accuracy - Exhibits foresight and ability to predict outcomes accurately.

APPENDIX F: Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire-  
Form XII Factors and Sub-Scale Definitions  
Continued

6. Integration - Maintains a close-knit organization  
and resolves inter-member conflicts.

(Hoy, W. K. & Miskell, C. G. 1987).



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